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HOW TO
WRITE
CORRECTLY

How to WRITE *Correctly*

A PLAIN GUIDE TO
GOOD ENGLISH USAGE

ARCHIBALD CURRIE JORDAN
Duke University

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P R E F A C E

THIS brief handbook is the result of several years of classroom instruction spent in teaching college students the fundamentals of correct English usage. The rules stated in this book are the record of student reaction and suggestion to the standard rules of accepted usage. No attempt has been made to force upon the student dogmatic opinion; no attempt has been made to straddle issues; the attempt has been made, however, to state the rules clearly, concisely, consistently, and in keeping with good taste.

The authorities for the principles of usage set forth in this book are manifold. First, careful observation directed upon good, accepted writing has led to the statement of some of the rules, and to additions and restatements of certain other well-established practices. Second, the recognized authority of the G. and C. Merriam *Webster's Dictionary* has been followed. Third and fourth, the teachings of Professor E. C. Woolley, deceased, and the teachings of Professor George Lyman Kittredge have been followed because they have become a subconscious part of my thinking and teaching. Also, student reaction year after year has made, and continues to make, the problem of teaching the fundamentals of English usage a very live and a very challenging service. Many of the principles stated here are the direct result of intelligent student

P R E F A C E

inquiries seeking after explanations — wanting to know,
by ?

It should be understood that the simple plan of cross reference used in this book gives the student ready recourse to a large body of factual material.

A. C. J.

DURHAM, NORTH CAROLINA

January, 1941

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A BRIEF GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED IN THIS HANDBOOK

1. **Addenda:** Supplementary parts to the rules in the book. Cf. rules 124-138, 149-150, and 163-164.
2. **Agreement:** The conformity of parts of speech.
3. **Appositive:** Usually a substantive placed next to, but after, the word that it explains, but not to be confused with the appositive position of the adjective.
4. **Bibliography:** A list of authors and their writings, related to a given subject.
5. **Collective:** A word representing a group of persons, places, or things functioning, usually, in the singular.
6. **Complimentary close:** The term, expressive of regard, that closes a letter, just before the signature.
7. **Conjunctive:** Connective; of the nature of a conjunction.
8. **Co-ordinate:** Constructions of equal rank, importance, or function.
9. **Dependent:** Subordinate word or clause relying on something else for meaning.
10. **Dialogue:** The conversational element in literary composition.
11. **Direct address:** The use of a name, usually that of a person, in direct address in which one person speaks to another.
12. **Direct discourse:** The representation of conversation in writing.
13. **Direct quotation:** Repeating the exact words of another in writing.

14. Ellipsis: Omission of one or more words in writing.
15. Formal: Conventional, established by form or custom.
16. Grammatical: According to the rules of grammar.
17. Independent: Complete within itself, and not dependent on any other word or construction.
18. Indirect discourse: The words of a speaker removed from within quotation marks, and introduced by the subordinating conjunction *that* following a verb of *saying*; therefore functioning as a substantive clause.
19. Indirect question: The use of a direct question (interrogative sentence) as the equivalent of a noun; therefore functioning as a substantive clause. The indirect question may, or may not, retain the same word order of the direct question.
20. Infinite verb-form: A gerund, a participle, or an infinitive; a form that is not inflected to show changes in number and person — in contrast to the finite forms that are inflected (conjugated) to show such changes. The finite are the indicative, the subjunctive, and the imperative mode-forms.
21. Italicize: To draw one line under a word or other sentence element for the purpose of calling special attention to the word or other element. One line drawn under a word or words indicates that italic type is to be used for that word or those words.
22. Modification: A word, phrase, or clause that is used for the purpose of qualifying, changing, or explaining another word.
23. Nominative absolute: The nominative case used in an absolute phrase. The absolute phrase is composed of the nominative absolute and a participle, and is absolutely disconnected from the remainder of the sentence

grammatically. It does, however, have a very definite function in modifying the entire sentence idea. A comma regularly follows the absolute phrase.

24. Parallel construction: Similar in meaning and in grammatical construction.
25. Parenthetical: A word, phrase, or sentence used by way of comment in a sentence that is grammatically complete without it.
26. Personification: Referring to some inanimate thing as if it were a person.
27. Phrase: A group of words containing neither subject nor predicate, and used as an adjectival or an adverbial modifier; not including the so-called infinitive, noun, and verb-phrases.
28. Prefix: One or more letters or syllables added at the beginning of a word to modify its significance.
29. Pronominal: Used as a pronoun.
30. Pronominal adjective: An adjective by nature, taking the place, by function, of the noun that it originally modified. The only sane explanation for the dual role played by some adjectives.
31. Pronominal possessive: A use of a possessive case, not as an adjective — its usual function — but as a substitute for the nominative or objective case of the noun that it originally modified. The only sane explanation for erasing the confusing term *possessive pronoun*.
32. Relative adjective clause: Sometimes called adjective clause, introduced by a relative pronoun, or by a relative adverb when the relative adverb is the equivalent of a preposition and a relative pronoun. The relative adjective clause should not be confused with the substantive clause functioning as an appositive modifier of a substantive.

33. Restrictive: A word, phrase, or clause that limits the reference or meaning of some word; something essential to the definiteness of a noun or other substantive — and to the meaning of predicates. (The opposite of *non-restrictive*.) The term *restrictive* is applied to appositives, phrases, and clauses used as modifiers.
34. Root: The stem or basic part of a word.
35. Salutation: The introductory words of greeting in a letter.
36. Series: A group of successive co-ordinate sentence elements joined together as in *a*, *b*, and *c*.
37. Subordinate: The opposite of co-ordinate; dependent, joining words or groups of words with dependent rank to other words or groups of words of higher rank.
38. Substantive: The term applied to any word or group of words representing a person, place, or thing.
39. Suffix: A letter, letters, or syllable or syllables added at the end of a word or root to modify the meaning.
40. Suspension periods: The three periods within a sentence, and the four periods at the end of a sentence, when the ellipsis or omission of words from the sentence is to be indicated.

HOW TO
WRITE
CORRECTLY

THE PERIOD

The Period Is Used:

1. To mark the end of a declarative sentence or its equivalent. Also, to mark the end of an imperative sentence. Cf. rule 88.

Right: Washington is a beautiful city.

Right: Please close the door.

Right: Will you please close the door. Cf. rule 49, note 2.

Right: Certainly.

NOTE. When the period and quotation marks are used together, the period always stands within the quotation marks, never outside. Cf. rule 79. Cf. rule 52.

2. After most abbreviations and initials; however, do not use the period after chemical symbols; nor after *per cent*; nor after Roman numerals except when used in outline form; nor after ordinal, cardinal, or multiplicative Arabic numerals like 9, 12, or 14 except when used in outline form. Cf. rule 1. Radio call letters are not punctuated with periods (KDKA).

Right: Mass., Robert E. Lee, LL.D., Mr.

Right: H₂SO₄, Fe

Right: per cent

NOTE 1. When an abbreviation ends a sentence, use only one period. Never use two. Cf. rule 5.

Right: I talked with Dr. John Jones, M.D.

NOTE 2. It is not necessary to make a distinction between

abbreviations and contractions. There is variation in the use of the period after them. Usually the period does not follow a contraction. Cf. note 5.

NOTE 3. There is no space in abbreviations like LL.D., and Ph.D. (Note the *LL* and the *Pb.*)

NOTE 4. When an abbreviation comes within a sentence and regularly is followed by a period marking the abbreviation, other marks of punctuation, such as the comma, may follow the period if any one of them is needed.

Right: Cf. the illustrations in rule 2.

Right: I live in the U. S. A., where the individual still has the opportunity to live his own life.

NOTE 5. There is no real need for *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *th*, etc. Such an expression as *November 9th* is a mixture of spelling and arithmetic (*9* and *ninth*). If a person understands the cardinal, ordinal, and multiplicative functions of the Arabic numerals, he will understand the construction and possible use of this *crutch*. *November 9* can mean only *November ninth*.

St, *nd*, *rd*, and *th* are not abbreviations. If the student insists upon using them, he at least should remember that no period follows the *st*, *nd*, *rd*, or *th*. Cf. rule 2, note 2.

Right: Four boys (cardinal) went to the fourth (ordinal) store for a fourfold (multiplicative) reason.

3. Before a decimal; therefore between dollars and cents.

Right: \$1.68, \$12.65, .34, measuring 15.55 feet.

4. After the last line of the heading and after the last line of the inside address of a letter if closed punctuation is used.

Right:

21 Walnut Street,
Atlanta, Georgia,
January 19, 1941.

Mr. J. A. Murrell,
Duke University,
Durham, North Carolina.

5. To indicate the ellipsis of words or sentences from a quotation; a series of periods, usually three, is used for such an ellipsis. At the end of a sentence an ellipsis is marked by four periods.

Right: "Woman . . . a creature remembered for her tongue."

NOTE. A series of suspension periods is used to point an unfinished sentence, or to mark suspension in order to hold the reader's attention upon the preceding words, or to show hesitation in dialogue.

Right: They fade until there is nothing . . . less than nothing . . . dreams.

Right: They fade until there is nothing . . . less than nothing. . . .

6. A period is not used after titles and chapter headings on a page in book form. Paragraph topics and subtopics used in outlines usually are followed by a period.

In such a title, or theme topic, as the following, no period follows the title:

The Responsibility of the Individual in Society

A period should be used after such a paragraph topic as the following (however cf. rule 1):

- I. The fight that took place at Gettysburg. (Paragraph topic.)
- A. The most notable battle of the Civil War. (Topic subhead.)
- B. Terrible loss of life. (Topic subhead.)

NOTE. For an explanation of the use of capitals in this example cf. rules 1, 87, 111, 115, and 190.

THE COMMA

The Comma Is Used:

7. To set off any substantive used in direct address.

Right: Yes, *John*, you may go.

Right: Dear *Anne*, (As in the salutation of an informal letter.)

NOTE. When a comma is used along with quotation marks, the comma always stands within the quotation marks, never outside. Cf. rule 79. Also cf. rules 1 and 52.

Right: "Sir," said I, "may I be permitted to withdraw?"

Right: Slang expressions, such as "skip it," should be avoided in formal writing.

Right: "I prefer not to attend this afternoon," he said.

Right: Spenser's series of sonnets, "Amoretti," shows a mastery of musical versification.

8. To set off a dependent adverbial clause if it precedes its principal clause. If, however, the dependent clause follows the principal clause, a comma is not used if the clause is restrictive; but if the clause is nonrestrictive, a comma usually is required.

Right: *When he comes*, I will report to you.

Right: Telegraph me from New York *when you arrive*. (Restrictive.)

Right: I am very glad to go, *especially since my cousin is to be there*. (Nonrestrictive.)

Right: I arose at five o'clock *so that I might be there on time*. (Restrictive.)

Right: I reached the station too early, *so that I had to wait in the rain for two hours*. (Nonrestrictive.)

9. To set off an introductory adverbial phrase containing a verbal: *infinitive, participle, or gerund*. One must distinguish between the introductory phrase that is adverbial and the one that is adjectival.

Right: *In order to go*, we must be ready by six o'clock. (The introductory phrase here contains a verbal, *to go*, the present active infinitive of the verb *go*. The phrase, *in order to go*, is an adverbial phrase modifying *must be ready*. The comma is used to indicate that it is not to be taken as a modifier of *we*.)

Right: *To succeed in this course*, one must do a large amount of parallel reading. (The phrase here modifies *must do*.)

10. An introductory adjective phrase modifying the subject usually should not be followed by any mark of punctuation, for such an introductory adjective phrase is likely to be a restrictive modifier of the sentence subject.

Right: *Coming into town* I saw the public square. (The phrase here is not an introductory one modifying the predicate or the sentence idea. It is one that adjectivally modifies the subject *I*.)

11. To set off nonrestrictive relative adjective clauses, but never to set off restrictive ones.

Right: This man, *who arrived here yesterday*, is a graduate of Harvard University. (Nonrestrictive.)

Right: The hat *that is on the ground* belongs to Jane. (Restrictive.)

Right: Stanford University, *which is a co-educational school*, is a richly endowed institution. (Nonrestrictive.)

Right: Any man *who has completely failed once* can not be trusted. (Restrictive.)

Right: Saddle the horse *which has the flowing mane*. (Restrictive.)

Right: Cut down the tree *that grows by the gate*. (Restrictive.)

Right: My only sister, *who is to arrive here tomorrow*, will be introduced to you. (Nonrestrictive.)

12. To set off a relative adjective clause when it explains the antecedent or presents an additional thought.

Right: Why ask John, *who knows nothing whatsoever about it*?

Right: She spoke to Sarah, *who is her sister*.

Right: The Congress voted the bill for defense, *which act was to be expected*.

13. To set off nonrestrictive words or expressions used in apposition, but never to set off restrictive ones. Cf. rule 28.

Right: Theodore Roosevelt, *a former President*, was a nature lover. (Nonrestrictive.)

Right: My sister Louise is very tall. (Restrictive.) Cf. rules 10, 11, and 76, illustration.)

Right: Paul *the* Apostle. (Restrictive.)

Right: William *the* Conqueror. (Restrictive.)

Right: Richard *the* Lion Hearted (Restrictive), king of England (Nonrestrictive), was the friend of Robin Hood, the outlaw of Sherwood Forest. (Nonrestrictive.)

14. To set off nonrestrictive words, phrases, or clauses which have a parenthetical function, or which may be functioning as sentence modifiers. Cf. rules 53 and 81.

Right: Furthermore, I think that we shall win.

Right: The time was, *I think*, ten o'clock.

Right: I, however, shall go. Cf. rule 38.

Right: You went, fortunately.

Right: You would wish, of course, to talk with him alone.

Right: Perhaps you already understand this rule. (Clearly not to be taken as a parenthetical use.)

Right: Watch your actions; *that is*, your gestures.

Right: You should be more careful in speaking, for example, in your statements concerning others.

NOTE. When such words or expressions as *perhaps*, *of course*, etc., come at the beginning of the sentence, they are set off by a comma if they are to be read as a parenthetical construction; otherwise they are not followed by a comma.

15. To set off such expressions as *namely*, *viz.*, *e.g.*, *that is*, and *i.e.* introducing an example or an explanation. (The comma follows the word.) Cf. rule 40. The expression *such as* is of a different grammatical construction and if nonrestrictive, introducing one or more examples, is preceded by the comma but followed by no mark of punctuation. If *such as* is used re-

strictively, no mark of punctuation either precedes or follows it.

Right: He took two courses: namely, business law and accounting.

Right: Pupils enjoy the study of words — e.g., the history of their own names. Cf. rules 40, 44, and 82.

Right: I enjoy studying poetry, such as the works of Milton, Browning, and Tennyson. (Nonrestrictive.)

Right: I enjoy studying such poetry as the works of Milton, Browning, and Tennyson. (Restrictive.)

Right: I am willing and anxious to buy material such as this. (Restrictive.)

16. To separate words, phrases, or clauses used in a series. Cf. rule 20.

Right: Men, women, and children crowded into the building.

Right: Training in typewriting is useful for secretaries, for teachers, and for businesswomen.

Right: If one wishes to travel in France, if one wishes to live in France, or if one cares to read French literature, one should learn the French language. (For semicolon in a series, cf. rule 39.)

Right: Thunder and lightning, wind and hail, ruined crops and broken trees were all a part of the storm.

Right: Despair, despair, despair was written on the face of every fleeing refugee.

NOTE. Good usage requires the comma before the final *and* introducing the third or the last member of any series of three or more parts.

17. To separate co-ordinate clauses joined by one of the pure conjunctions, such as *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, and

while in the sense of *but*. See also the rules for the semicolon. Cf. rules 37 ff.

Right: I heard him speak, but I made no reply.

Right: I should like to go, for I need the trip. (No comma precedes the preposition *for*. *For* is a conjunction here.)

Right: He assumed the responsibility, but he was not forced to do so.

Right: One must work industriously, or he will not attain success.

Right: The speeding automobile crashed into the concrete bridge, and with a thud the driver was thrown clear of the wreckage.

NOTE. When the independent co-ordinate clauses are short and closely connected in meaning, the comma before the conjunction *and*, *but*, *or*, or *for*, or *while* in the sense of *but* may be omitted. The student, however, should understand that the preferred practice is to use the comma. There is danger in punctuation determined by the length of a construction. The comma is for clearness and should be so used.

18. To separate two or more synonymous or almost synonymous adjectives. No comma separates the two or more adjectives modifying a noun if the last adjective modifies the noun more closely than does the other adjective. (No comma ever separates the last adjective from its noun.)

Right: It seems a *long, lonesome* day.

Right: A *big brown* dog was with him.

Right: She was a *charming American* airhostess.

Right: Annapolis graduates *capable* naval officers.

Right: The *jolly, jovial* man was of an excellent personality.

NOTE. One simple, certain method of determining whether or not the comma should be placed between two adjectives is to substitute the word *and* for the comma. If the word *and* makes the construction clearer, the comma should be used between the adjectives.

19. To separate words in the same construction when they are modified in different ways.

Right: They saw *deserts*, and *oases* where grew grass and trees.

Right: We found that we were confronted with broad *marsh lands*, and with *coastal swamps* full of cypress trees.

20. To separate pairs of words, when words are used in pairs. Cf. rule 16.

Right: A mother loves her son whether he be good or bad, ugly or handsome, rich or poor.

Right: Individual liberty and the right to the pursuit of happiness, the love of country and the belief in the equality of all men before the law, the sovereignty of the individual state and the supreme power of the Federal Government make America.

21. To set off a nominative absolute construction.

Right: *The library having been closed*, we came home.

Right: *The work being finished*, I went to the theater.

Right: I went to the beach, *the afternoon having been declared a half-holiday*.

Right: It appears certain, *the European countries being in such a state of belligerent turmoil*, that the world must face a drastic change.

NOTE. The student should understand that the *nominative absolute* is a substantive in the nominative case used in the

nominative absolute construction. The *nominative absolute construction*, or *phrase*, is the nominative absolute plus a participle. It is this nominative absolute construction, or phrase, that is set off by the comma. It should be understood that the position of the absolute phrase construction may be that at the beginning of, at the end of, or within the sentence.

22. To set off the parts of a sentence that are out of their natural order; also to set off the contrasted element or elements of a sentence.

Right: Lightly over the waves, rode the canoe.

Right: A change of scene, not work, is what he needs.

Right: Splashing and dashing over the rocks, the water flowed on to the sea.

Right: The more one believes in oneself, the more one can succeed.

NOTE. Some sentence elements may be transposed for emphasis, and some may appear more natural if transposed, but the comma still serves to clarify the construction.

23. To indicate the omission of words grammatically essential to a sentence. This omission sometimes may be the ellipsis of a word common to two parts of a sentence but not repeated.

Right: "To err is human; to forgive, divine."

Right: Come to Boston this week-end if possible; if not, next week-end.

Right: One should learn from Bacon: "Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man. . . ." Cf. rules 5, 37, and 39.

24. Between sentence elements to clarify the meaning if the elements might be read together improperly without the comma. Cf. rule 32.

Wrong: Ever since she has studied English. (Wrongly appears to be an adverbial clause.)

Right: Ever since, she has studied English.

Wrong: While I was driving to my cabin on the lake two miles distant a man was drowning. (Position of cabin and lake uncertain.)

Right: While I was driving to my cabin, on the lake two miles distant a man was drowning.

Wrong: I was unwilling to admit that I disliked you because you were friendly. (The omitted comma before *because* indicates that the adverbial clause of cause is restrictive, thus leaving the wrong meaning.) Cf. rule 8.

Right: I was unwilling to admit that I disliked you, because you were friendly.

Wrong: Once inside the butler, the servant who met me at the door, directed me into the drawing room.

Right: Once inside, the butler, the servant who met me at the door, directed me to the drawing room.

25. To set off a mild interjection for which an exclamation mark is too strong. Cf. rules 34 and 47.

Right: Oh, come — you'd enjoy the ride.

Right: Well, what are you going to do about it?

Right: Why, this is the very illustration that I want.

26. To set off a short direct quotation. It should be understood that the comma is not used in indirect discourse. Neither is it used with a question mark nor with an exclamation mark. Cf. rule 49, note 1.

Right: She said, "I do not believe the story."

Right: He shouted, "Are you going?" Cf. rule 52.

Right: She said, "I will come at four," but she is not here. Cf. rule 79.

Right: The instructor said that he would be here at twelve-thirty. Cf. rule 154, note 1.

Right: "Excellence," said he, "dwells high among the hills."

27. To separate a proper name from its following academic or honorary title; also to separate two or more such titles; also to separate an inverted name in a bibliography or reference list from the initials or given name. Cf. rule 183.

Right: Bryce, James. *The Holy Roman Empire*. New York: Macmillan, 1919.

Right: Coulton, G. G. *Life in the Middle Ages*.

Right: Coulton, G. G., *Life in the Middle Ages*. Cf. rule 164, note.

Right: Edward M. Shackleford, B.S., LL.D., President.

Right: J. H. Harris, Attorney General.

Right: Pershing, John Joseph, General, United States Army. Cf. rules 100 and 23, and 28 in the light of 23.

28. Before *of* used in phrases indicating residence, position, or title.

Right: Elizabeth Lane, of Sacramento, California.

Right: Dr. Lanier, of the Presbyterian Church. Cf. rule 99.

Right: Admiral Percy Foote, of the United States Navy, retired.

29. To set off a geographical name that explains a preceding name; also a name of family relationship that explains another name. Such names may be regarded as defining names of places or persons.

Right: Augusta, Maine.

Right: Durham, North Carolina.

Right: John W. Smith, Jr. Cf. rule 63.

Right: John W. Smith, Sr.

30. To set off the items of a date or an address, a name explaining another name, and the year explaining the month or the date of the month. *Note:* Do not use any mark of punctuation between the month and the date of the month.

Right: June 20, 1940.

Right: The address is 205 Maple Street, Providence, Rhode Island. Cf. rule 29.

Right: In August, 1940, I visited friends on Grand Avenue, Poughkeepsie, New York.

Right: Your tenure of office began on the first of September, 1940.

NOTE. In formal notes, written in the third person, dates and street numbers are spelled out.

31. To divide large numbers into groups of *three's*. Cf. rule 32.

Right: 648,725,683.

Right: 2,000 and 2,569. (The comma division begins from right to left with groups of three.)

NOTE. Round numbers usually are spelled out.

Right: One hundred.

Right: Ten thousand.

32. To separate two adjacent sets of figures; also to separate two adjoining words that are identical.

Right: In the year 1934, 625 girls were graduated here.

Right: Whoever gives, gives worthily.

Right: "Thou shalt hear the 'Never, never,' whispered by"

Right: The price is much, much too high. Cf. rule 82.

33. To set off the numbers designating the volume, page, or line of literary publications.

Right: Vol. 118, No. 2, p. 112, l. 7, Cf. rules 183 and 192.

NOTE. Do not spell out the numbers representing divisions of a book or document, such as parts, chapters, paragraphs, sections, rules, or page numbers or lines.

34. After such words as *yes*, *no*, *perhaps*, *indeed*, *certainly*, etc., when these words are used as introductory words. The student, however, must distinguish between the *introductory* use of such words as these and the *elliptical* use. The elliptical use of one of these words is not set off by a comma because the elliptical use is the equivalent of a complete sentence and should be followed by a sentence end-mark. Cf. rule 1.

Right: Certainly!

Right: Yes, I will go with you.

Right: Yes.

Right: No, the concert is tomorrow, not today.

Right: No.

Right: Indeed, I do expect you to attend.

Right: Yes, indeed!

Right: Perhaps, there always seems to be a chance that one may take.

35. After each line of the heading and of the inside address in a letter if closed punctuation is used. In such closed punctuation the period and not the comma

follows the last line in both the heading and the inside address. Cf. rule 1.

Right:

Mr. J. W. Smith,
110 First Avenue, North,
Tampa, Florida.

216 Adair Street,
Augusta, Maine,
January 2, 1941.

36. After the complimentary close of a letter when *closed* punctuation is used.

Right: Very truly yours,

Right: With love,

Right: With sincerest appreciation, (Cf. rules 1 and 88.)

NOTE. Capitalize only the first word in a complimentary close, but capitalize the first and the last words in a salutation. Cf. rule 88, note.

THE SEMICOLON

The Semicolon Is Used:

37. To separate independent clauses that are not joined by one of the co-ordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, or *while* in the sense of *but*. Cf. rule 17.

Right: Attend to the matter promptly; report as soon as you have completed the job.

NOTE 1. When the semicolon is used in this compound sentence construction, one should be able to understand the meaning of *and*, *but*, *or*, or *for*. If one of these conjunctions can not be understood, one should prefer to use the period and not the semicolon.

NOTE 2. The semicolon is used to separate independent clauses joined by *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, and *while* in the sense of *but* when the clauses are long or contain commas within themselves. Cf. rule 17.

Right: You went merrily, merrily on your way; but I, sad to relate, remained behind.

Right: Freedom, which every American citizen may enjoy, should produce initiative; but many Americans, failing to realize this fact, follow the lead of others.

38. To separate the clauses of a sentence when they are joined by one of the conjunctive (sometimes co-ordinating) adverbs *therefore*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *hence*, *so*, *thus*, *still*, *yet*, etc. Cf. rule 17.

NOTE. When the joining adverb is a co-ordinating one, the semicolon precedes the adverb; and a comma follows. If the joining adverb is a subordinating one, the semicolon precedes the adverb; but no comma follows. In this latter construction the adverb introduces the second clause and subordinates it to the first or main one.

Right: I can not go to the game this afternoon; however, you may go.

The adverb *however* is co-ordinating here, and the sentence is a compound one. It may be read without the use of *however* and still make sense.

Right: Evelyn can play well; otherwise she would not have been placed on the concert program. (The adverb *otherwise* is conjunctive here, and the sentence is a complex one. It can not be read without the use of the adverb *otherwise*. The clauses are the equivalent of cause and effect.)

NOTE. Good usage does not permit the use of the comma

before co-ordinating or conjunctive adverbs; the semicolon must be used.

39. To separate clauses or phrases in a series when the series is introduced by a colon. Cf. rule 16.

Right: The return on the investment was: in 1938, 3 per cent; in 1939, 6 per cent; and in 1940, 4 per cent. Cf. rule 32 for the comma.

Right: My final instructions to you were: you must not rely on your own judgment; details must be followed in every respect. Cf. rule 92 for the lack of a capital letter in the words *you* and *details*. The verb *were* in the main statement has not been completed by a *predicate nominative* before the colon.

40. To precede such expressions as *namely*, *i.e.*, *viz.*, *e.g.*, *that is*, etc. (The colon, the dash, or the comma may take the place of the semicolon here if the grammatical construction permits. Cf. rules 15, 44, and 82.)

Right: The British Navy long has been America's first line of defense; that is, (; *to wit*, or; *that is to say*,) it has been America's protective force against any European aggression.

NOTE. Again, as it is explained in rule 15, the expression *such as* is of a different grammatical construction and is punctuated in a different way. Such an expression as *namely* is an adverb parenthetically used. The expression *such as* is composed of the pronominal use of the adjective *such* and the relative pronoun *as*. For one to understand why no comma follows the *as* in *such as* it is necessary only that he understand the relative adjective clause construction and the use of *as* as the subject of such a clause. For example,

Right: These are the same as (are) these. 'As is a relative

pronoun with the predicate *are* understood. *Those* is a demonstrative adjective functioning as the pronominal equivalent of *those things* used as the predicate nominative. The antecedent of the pronoun *as* is the indefinite *same*, a pronominal use of the adjective as the predicate nominative in the main statement. If the whole sentence were to be written, as it has to be understood, it would be: *These objects are the same material as are those objects.*)

Right: He is such as you should pattern after. (*As* in this sentence is a relative pronoun used as the object of the preposition *after*. If the relative pronoun *whom* is substituted for the pronoun *as*, one may see the similarity, *whom you should pattern after.*)

Right: Mine are the same as yours. (*As* is the relative pronoun used as the subject of *are* understood. *Yours* is the pronominal possessive used as the predicate nominative in the relative adjective clause, as [*are*] *yours.*)

NOTE. The relative adjective clause introduced by the relative pronoun *as* becomes very clear if the student will learn that the word *as* is always a relative pronoun when preceded by *same* or *such* functioning as its antecedent in the main statement.

41. To set off separate items or references in lists of names containing figures, addresses, or titles when the comma alone would not be clear.

Right: Genesis 1:3-6; 2:1-8; 5:4-7.

Right: Franklin D. Roosevelt, President of the United States of America; Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, Washington, District of Columbia; Col. Frank Knox, Secretary of the Navy. Cf. rule 37, note 2.

THE COLON

The Colon Is Used:

42. As an introduction to a formal direct quotation or to a direct question, which follows.

Right: He recited the first line of the famous address: "Fourscore and seven years ago"

Right: The question that I now am putting to you for the third time is: "Where were you at the time that the witness has mentioned?" Cf. rule 39, illustration 2 for the difference in the use of the capital letter beginning the *direct* question or discourse.

NOTE. Cf. the following illustration with rule 26 for the use of the comma or the colon with direct discourse.

Right: You, perhaps, will remember that when King Richard had returned to England in disguise, Robin Hood befriended him and said: "My men and I will serve your cause with all our strength."

NOTE. It safely may be said that the colon is used to introduce a quotation when there is no verb of *saying*.

(To the student who would inquire as to just when the *comma* and just when the *colon* should follow a verb of saying or its equivalent introducing a direct discourse, this rule should be stated: *If the direct discourse clearly is that between two or more parties who are discoursing among themselves at the time, and if the conversation is their immediate conversation, the comma should be used to introduce the direct discourse. If, however, the direct discourse is that which one who is speaking the part says another has said at another time, the colon may be*

used to indicate the fact.) Cf. the illustrations in rule 26 with those in 42.

43. When a formal listing of particulars is to be introduced.

Right: His writings may be classified under three headings: poems, essays, and novels.

Right: In considering the merits of your argument the jury must take into consideration the following facts: the nature of the attack, the armed state of the defendant, the degree of provocation, if any

44. To set off an appositive clause or phrase that follows as a restatement of the preceding clause. Such expressions as *to wit* and *that is* do not affect the use of this colon.

Right: His advice to the moody is quite simple: He requests him to live with others, to laugh, to play, and never to feel inferior. Cf. rule 40. Also rule 92.

Right: One necessity stands out above all others: to regard another with the same sense of tolerance as that with which one himself would like to be regarded.

45. After the salutation of a business letter. This colon indicates the listing of facts or the expression of an opinion at some length. To this extent it differs from the comma, which is that of direct address, and used only in friendly letters, to mark a salutation.

Right: My dear Mr. Jones: Cf. rule 88, note, for the capitals.

Right: Dear Sir:

NOTE. The construction *My dear Mr. Jones:* is more formal, and less intimate, than is the construction *Dear Mr.*

Jones: and should be so regarded by the writer. The singular form *Sir* or *Madam* is to be preferred to the plural form *Sirs*, *Gentlemen*, or *Mesdames*, since usually one reader is addressed in the salutation.

46. To separate hours, minutes, and seconds; the parts of bibliographical references; and numerical formulæ. Cf. rule 183.

Right: The time is 11:45.

Right: My time was 2:45:15.

Right: New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1941.

Right: 3:9::9:27.

Right: Samuel Taylor Coleridge: *A Study in Romanticism*.
Cf. rule 184.

THE EXCLAMATION POINT

The Exclamation Point Is Used:

47. After an exclamatory expression of strong feeling.

Right: Fire! Call the firemen.

Right: Oh that I had never come!

48. After any word, phrase, or sentence that indicates forceful utterance even if that *strong feeling* is an apparent question, command, wish, or ironical statement. The idea so punctuated is wholly that of exclamation.

Right: Am I supposed to believe that! Cf. rule 49.

THE QUESTION MARK

The Question Mark (Interrogation Point) Is Used:

49. After a direct question.

Right: When may I expect you to return?

NOTE 1. If a sentence contains a book title marked with an interrogation point, no comma follows the interrogation point unless the grammatical or rhetorical meaning requires such a comma. Cf. rule 26.

Right: The meaning of *What Price Glory?* is obvious.

NOTE 2. A courteous request is marked with a period, not with a question mark. Cf. rule 1.

Right: Will you please sit down.

50. After a direct question even if in declarative form.

Right: What may I expect of you in the future? You say that you will not reform?

51. Within marks of parenthesis as a sign of uncertainty, query, or seeking after information.

Right: I bought a real (?) bargain.

Right: John Smith, 1875(?)–1932.

NOTE. This *conjectural* use of the question mark is frowned upon by some writers. The mark, however, serves a definite purpose.

52. Within quotation marks or outside quotation marks when both the *question* and the *quotation* marks are used at the same place in the sentence or sentence

equivalent. The construction of the quoted matter determines the placement *within* or *outside*.

Right: "Whom am I to see?" he was heard to ask.

Right: Did the student resent being called an "apple polisher"? Cf. rules 1, 7, and 79.

P A R E N T H E S E S

Parentheses Are Used:

53. To indicate the insertion of parenthetically independent matter for which commas or dashes are not suitable, such as translations, comments, and explanations, and where accuracy is absolutely necessary. Cf. rules 14, 81, 82, and 83.

Right: *Esse quam videri.* (To be rather than to seem.)

Right: We had waited in vain (five days as a matter of fact), and now we could linger no longer.

Right: I enclose a check for fifty dollars and five cents (\$50.05).

Right: There are three important considerations: (1) the possibility of war, (2) the morale of the nations involved, and (3) the material resources available.

NOTE 1. The term *parentheses* means the *marks*; the term *parenthesis* means that spacing or material included within the parentheses marks.

NOTE 2. Commas are used to set off parenthetical matter for which marks of parenthesis or double dashes are not suitable. Cf. rules 14 and 81 ff.

NOTE 3. When the parentheses marks and another mark of punctuation occur together, the grammatical meaning of

the matter in the parenthesis determines the placement of the parentheses and the other mark of punctuation.

Right: I will prepare my oral report with great care (provided I am assigned one), for I realize fully that such a report is weighed heavily in the final average.

Right: You will be expected to settle with the nurseryman for the damage that you did to my shrubbery (Please do not see me!), for the matter now is entirely in his hands.

NOTE 4. The simplest thing for the student to remember is this: The matter within the marks of parenthesis is punctuated exactly as it would have been punctuated if there had been no marks of parenthesis. No mark or marks of punctuation precede the first mark of parenthesis, while any mark that follows the second mark of parenthesis is the same that would be required there if the matter in parenthesis were omitted.

NOTE 5. Marks of parenthesis should not be used indiscriminately: that is, they should not be used to italicize a word spoken of as a word, nor to emphasize, nor to italicize a book title, nor to enclose numbers, letters, symbols, or the like, such as an X ray, I beam, L rail, or v-shaped engine. Cf. rules 76 and 180.

Wrong: The word (and) is a conjunction.

Right: The word *and* is a conjunction.

Wrong: Spenser's (The Faerie Queene) is too difficult for college freshmen.

Right: Spenser's *The Faerie Queene* is too difficult for college freshmen.

Wrong: Be careful how you form your (i's, e's, t's, and l's).

Right: Be careful how you form your *i's, e's, t's, and l's*.

NOTE 6. Do not use parentheses to indicate a deletion; use a straight line.

how you form

Wrong: Be careful (in the formation of) your letters.

how you form

Right: Be careful ~~in the formation of~~ your letters.

BRACKETS

Brackets Are Used:

54. To indicate the insertion within a sentence of matter foreign to the sentence itself, and to enclose explanations in quoted matter.

Right: The coming election [November] promises to be a real test of the Federal Administration.

Right: The English language should be more carefully studied by the college student, for the language [It has been enriched by many languages — the Latin and the Anglo-Saxon for the most part.] is one that is the basis of all other studies in American colleges.

55. To indicate a parenthesis within a parenthesis. Cf. rule 193.

Right: . . . (Cambridge [England], 1936), V, 96, Note 1.

The student should understand that parentheses and brackets differ in this fact: Matter enclosed within parentheses is thought of as belonging to the sentence; matter enclosed within brackets is thought of as something interpolated by the author of the sentence as his own comment.

Right: The grand jury statute (N. C. Consolidated Statutes, 1937, § [or section] 1792).

THE APOSTROPHE

56. Add an apostrophe and an *s* to form the possessive of a singular or plural noun not ending in an *s* or *z* sound.

Right: Girl's dress; men's clothes; children's coats; sheep's wool.

Right: Woman's College — not, Women's College. (Small letters unless designating or meaning a particular institution.) Cf. rule 100.

57. Add an apostrophe and *s* to form the possessive of singular nouns of one syllable ending in an *s* or *z* sound, and of singular nouns of more than one syllable ending in an *s* or *z* sound and having an accent on the last syllable.

Right: Fox's; class's; Burns's; Beatrice's; James's; Jones's; miss's.

NOTE. The apostrophe without the *s* is accepted to form the possessive of singular nouns of more than one syllable ending in *s* or *z* and having no accent on the last syllable.

Right: Goodness' sake; conscience' sake.

58. Add only an apostrophe to form the possessive of all plural nouns ending in an *s* or *z* sound.

Right: Girls' dresses; Smiths' coat-of-arms; scissors' point.

NOTE. There are certain exceptions, such as *geese's*.

59. Add an apostrophe and *s* to each possessive joined by a co-ordinating conjunction when each

possesses separately; add an apostrophe and *s* only to last possessive when joint ownership is desired.

Right: Mary's and John's books are here. (Separate ownership.)

Right: Mary and John's book is here. (Joint ownership.)

Right: Mary and John's books are here. (Joint ownership.)

60. To form the possessive of compound nouns, add whatever form would be added to the last noun if the last noun were to be used alone. If the last word of the compound is not a noun, add an apostrophe and *s*.

Right: Passers-by's; brother-in-law's; editors-in-chief's.

NOTE 1. In such compounds as *bird's-eye-view* the apostrophe must be placed so as to reveal the true meaning that is intended.

NOTE 2. The use of such a construction as *somebody's else* is ungrammatical. It should be *somebody else's*. An examination of any good dictionary will establish this fact.

61. Use an apostrophe to indicate the omission of a letter or letters or of one or more figures in a date.

Right: Can't; o'clock; class of '40; don't; I've; you're; you've; 'tis; it's (it is).

NOTE. The construction *it's* means the pronoun *it* and the verb *is*. The construction *its*, like the possessive case of each of the other personal pronouns *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, and *theirs*, has no apostrophe used with it. Cf. rules 139 ff. Also cf. rule 64.

62. Add an apostrophe and *s* to form the plural of letters, figures, signs, and words used as words.

Right: Watch your *i's* and *e's*.

Right: Don't use too many *and*'s.

Right: His 7's and 9's are not written distinctly.

Right: They are learning to add without putting +'s beside the numbers. Cf. the illustrations in 62 with the general statement in rule 181.

63. Add an apostrophe and *s* to form the possessive of titles, firm names, and initials.

Right: Henry VIII's wives.

Right: Westinghouse Company's equipment; KDKA's broadcasting station; F. D. Hamilton, Jr.'s wedding. Cf. rules 29 and 30.

NOTE. The apostrophe sometimes is omitted in titles and in geographical names.

Right: Citizens Trust Company; The Lions Club.

Right: State Teachers College. (Small letters unless meaning a particular institution.) Cf. rule 100.

64. Caution: The apostrophe never is used in the formation of the possessive case of personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns. Cf. rule 61, note.

Right: His is not here.

Right: That is hers; this is ours.

Right: Whose is this?

NOTE 1. Add the apostrophe and *s* to form the possessive of indefinite pronominal constructions.

Right: Everyone's book is lost.

Right: One's duty comes first.

Right: One's duties come first.

NOTE 2. The apostrophe has two (2) general uses — the one indicating the omission of a letter or letters; the other indicating possession. In reality these two uses are the same

since even the one indicating possession shows the omission of a letter. For example, *The child's book is on the floor* really is *The child's book is on the floor*, the possessive case *child's* originally being *childes*.

NOTE 3. As a general rule the possessive case construction should not be used to indicate possession by an inanimate object, which supposedly can not possess or own anything. For this reason good usage requires the prepositional *of-phrase* construction. There are, however, certain exceptions, such as *day's* length; *hour's* time; *year's* duration; etc. Cf. rule 148, note 1.

Right: The slogan of the firm (better than the firm's slogan).

Right: The end of the road (better than the road's end).

NOTE 4. It is awkward to attribute possession to the object of an act, for the object of an act really does not possess the act. Here again the *of-phrase* construction should be used, and not the possessive case.

Right: The assassination of Lincoln (and not Lincoln's assassination).

Right: The execution of the prisoner (and not the prisoner's execution). Cf. rule 148, note 2.

THE HYPHEN

The Hyphen Often Is Used to Form the Compound of Words:

65. Compounds of words usually are written as one word when the first part is a prefix (*semicircle*), or a combining form (*television*), or when the last part is a suffix (*supportable*), or a combining form (*theology*).

66. Compounds are hyphenated:

1. When the second part is capitalized.

Right: Indo-China; ex-President; Pan-American; pro-German; anti-Communist.

2. When the compound is temporarily combined or is composed of several words to be considered as one word.

Right: An I-told-you-so attitude; He is happy-go-lucky in his work.

3. When it is composed of a prepositional phrase or when it contains a prepositional phrase.

Right: Sister-in-law.

Right: You made a very matter-of-fact statement.

4. When the first part is the prefix *self* or *ex* (rarely with other prefixes).

Right: Self-control; self-respect; self-reliance; self-indulgence.

Right: The use of *ex* is followed by a hyphen when *ex* is used with names implying office or condition, as *ex-governor*.

NOTE 1. For the use of the hyphen following other prefixes the student must rely upon the dictionary or have a very clear sense of the meaning that may be intended. As an example, the prefix *extra* is followed by a hyphen in such words as *extra-dry*, *extra-hazardous*, and *extra-strong* but not by the hyphen in such words as *extracellular*, *extralegal*, and *extraparental*.

NOTE 2. Compounds of *well* plus a past participle are hyphenated when they are used as adjectives in the attributive position. Cf. rule 70.

Right: It was a *well-prepared* meal.

Right: The meal was *well prepared*.

The hyphen in the first illustration furnishes an immediate grammatical aid. It clearly makes the adverb *well* a component part of the adjective *prepared*.

NOTE 3. Some dictionaries use a short, light hyphen to show syllabication. This use should not be confused with that of the longer, heavier hyphen used in compounding words. To avoid any possible misinterpretation some good dictionaries now use the centered period (·) as in *in·crim·in·ate*.

5. When there is a possibility of a compound word's being confused with another word.

Right: Re-creation (recreation); twenty five-dollar bills (twenty-five dollar bills); new-business manager (new business manager).

Right: Near by or near-by (adverbs); near-by (always if adjective).

6. When the same letter is repeated three times.

Right: Thrill-less trip.

7. When adjacent vowels might be confusing.

Right: Co-ordinating conjunction; also may be written coördinating and coordinating; pre-eminent; re-elect.

8. When two vowels would be considered a diphthong otherwise.

Right: Write-up; cure-all.

9. When compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine are spelled out.

Right: Twenty-two; forty-seven; one hundred and fifty-five.

10. When a word is divided at the end of a line. (Such a word must be divided by whole syllables. Syllables of one letter should not be left to stand alone, for such a one-letter syllable might be mistaken for the article *A*, the pronoun *I*, the interjection *O*, or given some misleading meaning.)

11. When a fraction is written in words, the hyphen is used between the numerator and denominator if the fraction functions as an attributive adjective or unless one part of the fraction is itself hyphenated.

Right: He won the election by a three-fourths majority.

Right: He miscalculated by three forty-thirds of a point. (Not by *three-forty-thirds* of a point.)

12. When adverbs ending in *ly* modify adjectives or participles, the hyphen is not needed, for clearly the adverb in *ly* may be interpreted in its correct grammatical construction.

Right: You may have been given the most carefully prepared plans, but you certainly did not profit by them.

In Compounding Nouns:

67. A compound noun naming the same person under two aspects is hyphenated.

Right: Husband-manager; secretary-treasurer; student-teacher.

68. Compound nouns composed of three or more words usually are hyphenated.

Right: Man-of-war; maid-in-waiting; son-in-law; fer-de-lance.

69. Word compounds to be read as a single noun usually are hyphenated.

Right: Walker-by; has-been; ton-mile; bull's-eye; *but* X-ray; I-beam; L-rail only when used as adjectives in the attributive position; otherwise X ray; I beam; L rail.

NOTE. Words formed from a letter of the alphabet and a suffix, representing the appearance of the object so described, as *I beam*, *L rail*, etc., capitalize the letter since it is the capital letter that represents the appearance of the object described. Sometimes, of course, the small letter might just as well represent the object, as in *v-shaped engine*, but should be written in Gothic type.

In Compounding Adjectives:

70. Many compound adjectives are hyphenated when used attributively. Among these are adjectives formed by (1) a noun plus a prepositional phrase, (2) a noun used as the object of a following present or past participle, (3) a prepositional phrase, (4) fractions or a numeral plus a noun, (5) an adjective and a participle, (6) adverbs not ending in *-ly* plus a participle.

Right: (1) *A dagger-in-the-back* look; *tête-à-tête* talk.

Right: (2) *English-speaking* people; *fun-loving* boy; *joy-giving* experience.

Right: (3) *Up-to-date* clothes; *down-in-the-mouth* look (adjective).

Right: (4) *Three-inch* board; *six-foot* fence; *two-thirds* majority (adjective) (but *two thirds* of the people) (noun).

In the representation of fractions, such a fraction as

two-thirds is hyphenated when it is used as an adjective in the attributive position. The fraction is not hyphenated when it is used as a noun.

Right: (5) Foreboding-looking, dark-colored; self-colored.

Right: (6) Hard-driving, *but* highly specialized.

NOTE. Adverbs ending in *-ly* joined to participles are not hyphenated when used adjectivally. Cf. rule 66, note 3, number 12.

Right: He is the newly appointed secretary.

71. Compound numerals from twenty-one to ninety-nine are hyphenated. Cf. rule 66, note 3, number 9. Also cf. rule 200.

Right: He will be twenty-two on June 25, 1943.

72. A compound adjective composed of a noun or adjective that is prefixed to a noun plus the suffix *-ed* is hyphenated.

Right: Absent-minded; able-bodied; double-faced; blue-eyed; double-jointed; grass-stained shirt.

In Compounding Adverbs:

73. Adverbs consisting of two or more words are hyphenated.

Right: The automobiles collided head-on.

Right: The car landed topsy-turvy.

Right: The executive seemed always to work topsy-turvily.

Right: Your proposition is well-nigh impossible.

QUOTATION MARKS

74. Use quotation marks to enclose all direct quotations, but not to enclose an indirect quotation.

Right: He said, "I am sorry."

Right: He said that he was sorry. Cf. rule 26.

NOTE 1. Sentences of a single speech must not be punctuated as separate speeches.

Wrong: John said, "I'm hungry." "I want my dinner." "I'm going home."

Right: John said, "I'm hungry. I want my dinner. I'm going home."

NOTE 2. When a direct quotation consists of two or more paragraphs, quotation marks should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the entire quotation. (The quotation marks are *not* placed at the end of each separate paragraph within the extended quoted matter. They are placed at the end of only the last paragraph.)

NOTE 3. In dialogue each speech regardless of its length should be enclosed in quotation marks and written in a separate paragraph, but quotation marks do not necessarily begin and end each separate sentence. They mark the beginning and the ending of each quotation as it should be represented. Cf. rule 26, rule 74, note 1, and rule 89, note 2.

Right:

"Father," said Denis to Anthony on the evening of the day that Aunt Agnes had lectured him by the flower-bed, "do you really like that Chinese temple?"

"Chinese what? Oh, the summer-house!"

The two smiled at each other.

"Much good my saying I do," Anthony went on. "It's coming down tomorrow, I suppose?"

"Well," Denis demurred politely.

"It will cost a lot of money, my son. Are you sure it ought to go?"

"Oh, not sure," said this very courteous critic. "I only think so."

And the laugh that broke from the two of them sealed the doom of the Chinese temple.

"It spoils the view just there," Denis murmured.

A moment later, from the top of his library ladder he spoke again to his father in soft amusement.

"Aunt Agnes warned me not to hurt your feelings . . .," he said.

This joke was of a kind he often made. Its sting was soft, touching gently on the obtuseness of an outsider, and its slanting acknowledgment of a deep, private confidence between the two who exchanged it was very sweet to Anthony.

"And why didn't . . . ?"

— Kate O'Brien.

NOTE 4. When introductory explanatory matter precedes direct discourse and the discourse in turn is followed by additional explanatory matter, the discourse is not paragraphed separately because it is regarded as a part of the passage that is introduced by the explanatory matter.

If, however, introductory explanatory matter precedes direct discourse and the discourse is not followed by additional explanatory matter, the discourse is paragraphed separately.

This rule does not invalidate that stated in *Note 3*. The rule simply is based on common sense and good usage, for not to follow the rule would lead to *one indentation of the introductory explanatory matter, another indentation of the direct discourse, and a third indentation of the concluding explanatory matter*, when as a matter

of fact, one indentation serves the purpose of setting off the passage containing the discourse. Cf. the illustration in rule 74, note 3.

75. Single quotation marks are used to indicate a quotation within a quotation.

Right: He repeated slowly, "Quoth the raven, 'Nevermore!'"

NOTE. If ever the need should arise for punctuating a quotation *within a quotation within a quotation*, the simple rule to follow is: double quotation marks within single quotation marks within double quotation marks. Cf. "... '... "..." ...'"

76. Quotation marks are used to enclose the titles of short plays, poems, paintings, lectures, moving pictures, and books. Cf. rule 180.

NOTE. The preferred practice is to italicize titles of whole publications and to use quotation marks for the titles of chapters, articles, and other subdivisions. By this method of representing the two levels of importance in the titles so indicated by the *italics* or by *quotation marks*, usage makes possible quick interpretation.

The indiscriminate use of quotation marks (for any one of the several purposes sometimes served by such marks) leads many students to wonder just what useful purpose quotation marks serve. Cf. rules 77, 78, and 178 ff.

Right: One of the poems in *Rainbow Gold* is "Barter."

Right: The motion picture *Gone with the Wind* is a work of art.

NOTE. If this title were to be set within quotation marks,

no useful purpose would be served. The italics are sufficient and surely leave a more pleasing page-appearance. Cf. a page studded with titles set within quotation marks with one on which the same titles are set in italics. For the capitals in *Gone with the Wind* cf. rule 115 and 115, note 3.

77. Quotation marks, often single ones, are used to enclose technical terms, nicknames, or slang expected to be unfamiliar to the reader.

Right: If I ever sing in public, I hope that I never "get the bind." Cf. rule 79.

Right: A model is to an artist what "copy" is to a printer.

Right: To the manager of a plant manufacturing sulphuric acid a "lead burner" is an indispensable skilled laborer.

78. Quotation marks often are used to enclose the names of ships and to indicate words used as words. (The preferred practice is to use italics instead of quotation marks. Cf. rules 178 and 182.)

Right: They are planning to sail on the "Normandie" as soon as school is over.

Better: They are planning to sail on the *Normandie* as soon as school is over.

Right: The word "and" is a conjunction.

Better: The word *and* is a conjunction. Cf. rule 181.

79. Concluding quotation marks *always* stand outside (after) the period or the comma. Cf. rules 1, 7, and the examples in 23, 26, and 77.

Right: _____,"

Right: _____."

NOTE. For the student to understand the uses of quotation marks when they occur with another mark of punctuation, the following rules should be understood:

1. When expressions like *he said* or *I remarked* are inserted before, within, or after a direct quotation, they are not enclosed within the quotation marks.

Right: "Even though all that you have laid claim to is yours," he replied, "I will not accept your offer."

Right: He said, "Excellence dwells high among the hills."

Right: "Excellence dwells high among the hills," he said.

Right: "Excellence," said he, "dwells high among the hills."

2. The quoted words that precede the inserted expression, such as *he said*, should be followed by a *question mark* or an *exclamation point* if the quoted words are interrogatory or exclamatory; otherwise the comma should be used. *No period or semicolon* is used after the quoted words preceding such an expression as *he said* or its equivalent. The expression *he said* or its equivalent when inserted within or after a direct quotation is never begun with a capital. Even though it follows a question mark or an exclamation point, it begins with a small letter and is regarded as a part of the sentence that ends only after both the quoted matter and the inserted matter have been completed.

Right: "Do you wish to ask a question?" he inquired.

Right: "Have you a question that you wish to ask?" he inquired.

Right: "I have no question to ask," he replied.

Right: "Will you want the privilege of asking questions," he asked "after you have had the opportunity to study?"

Right: "Frankly, as I see it now," he exclaimed, "there will be no question that I ever shall ask!"

Right: "I, nevertheless, shall grant you the privilege of asking questions whenever you may wish to do so," the instructor replied; "you deserve it." (The use of the semicolon after the inserted expression *the instructor replied*

is that of the semicolon between the clauses of a compound sentence not joined by one of the pure conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, or *for*. Cf. rule 37.)

3. Even though the quoted words that precede the inserted expression, such as *he said*, are followed by a complete sentence end-mark such as the question mark or the exclamation point, the period still follows the expression, and the expression begins with a small letter.

Right: "Will you do your part in making the project a success?" he inquired. "We need your fullest co-operation."

Right: "Shame on you!" he shouted. "You surely have a nerve!"

Right: "The outcome is subject to the gravest doubt," he answered. "I am indeed worried."

4. When a word is followed both by quotation marks and by another mark of punctuation, the mark of punctuation stands within the quotation (before the concluding quotation marks) if it applies to the quoted matter and not to the sentence containing the quoted matter.

Commas and periods always stand within the quotation marks.

Right: "If you have a ticket," said the attendant, "hold it yourself."

The interrogation point and the exclamation point are placed within the concluding quotation marks when used as a part of the quotation.

Right: I was forced to ask, "What is your authority?"

Right: "Jump!" he commanded.

Right: He inquired, "Will you be there?"

Right: "That is incredible!" he shouted. "I will not believe it!"

5. When a word is followed by quotation marks along

with another mark of punctuation, the mark of punctuation stands outside the quotation (after the quotation marks) if it applies not to the quoted matter but to the sentence containing the quoted matter.

Right: "Are you trying to say to me, 'My authority is well established'?" (The question mark marks the entire sentence and not the matter quoted within the single quotation marks. Cf. rule 75.)

Right: Are you trying to say to me, "My authority is well established"? (This illustration shows the same use of the question mark as does the illustration immediately preceding. The omission of the quotation marks before and after the entire sentence may be justified in the light of the sentence, used without relation to its placement in some paragraph of which it might be a part.

If one general rule governing the use of quotation marks along with other marks of punctuation could be made, it would be very much like this: Quotation marks are used to indicate matter for special attention — usually direct quotations, but other marks of punctuation are used to indicate the grammatical or the rhetorical function of the words both within and outside the quoted matter. For this reason the function of the words determines the relative placements of quotation marks and other marks of punctuation when they occur together.

(Because of the very nature of the semicolon — a *half member* or *half-sentence marker* — and because of the very nature of the colon — a *limb*, a *member*, or a *clause* — from the Greek *kōlon*, the semicolon and the colon never precede the quotation marks, but always follow.) (This use of the semicolon or the colon along with quotation marks, usually is that occurring when the quotation marks are used to indicate slang or technical terms.)

6. When suspension periods are used to indicate an ellipsis and quotation marks occur with them, the quotation marks stand outside (are placed after) the suspension periods.

Right: "Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought"

7. Quotation marks usually are not used to enclose expressions that are not actually quotations of spoken or written words. Students often are puzzled about the punctuation of such expressions as these, but one simple rule should be of lasting help: namely, when one writes of his own mental resolution or thought or saying, he usually does not enclose that resolution or thought or saying within quotation marks, for such an expression actually is not a quotation. A person, however, may address his *alter ego* and use quotation marks to give validity or an impression of reality.

Right: I said to myself: I should have known better.

Right: I thought to myself: Now you should not do that.

Right: I made up my mind: Proceed carefully now, or you may ruin all of your plans.

8. Sometimes a quoted sentence may be placed in a context and yet not marked with capitals or punctuated with periods, unless the period should be required as the sentence end-mark for the entire context.

Right: Emerson's philosophical utterances such as "a foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds" need to be examined before they are appropriated, for after all, what constitutes "foolish consistency"? Cf. rule 52. Also, cf. rule 15.

9. *When the quoted matter is set in smaller type or in paragraphs that are indented on each side, no quotation marks are used. The smaller type and the unusual indentation serve the*

same purpose as would quotation marks — to emphasize or attract special attention to the matter so set.

In typed manuscripts single spacing may serve when the use of a smaller type is impossible.

10. Familiar quotations may be written without quotation marks, such as Honesty is the best policy. Cf. rule 89, note 3.

THE DASH

The Dash Is Used:

80. When a sentence is broken off abruptly before its completion.

Right: Consider the subject for a moment — but wait, let's finish this first. (A semicolon might be used after *wait*.)

Right: Now, as I was explaining — oh, by the way, did I complete yesterday's assignment before the bell rang?

81. Instead of the comma if the comma would have been required had the matter between the dashes, or introduced by the dashes, been omitted. Cf. rules 14 and 53.

Right: If he comes — he is supposed to — give him my message. (If he comes, give him my message.)

NOTE. This use of the dash is similar to that setting off a *modification* or *repetition* amounting to an afterthought. Cf. rule 82.

Right: I am planning to study — to grind as a matter of fact — with all the earnestness at my command.

82. To introduce a repetition, a summing up, or an afterthought, with more or less emphasis. Cf. rule 83.

Right: I will surely — surely, I say — speak to him about this.

Right: There are two qualities that she does not possess — namely, tolerance and practicality. Cf. rules 15, 40, and 44.

Right: They selected her because of her beauty — as if that meant anything.

83. Before an appositive that is prepared for by the preceding words; or before an appositive that is separated from the principal substantive. Cf. rule 40.

When an appositive element has internal punctuation, the dash or dashes may be used to set off the appositive element.

Right: He came to find the guilty man — John Dillinger.

Right: One of the policemen gave us the clue to your hiding place — Pat O'Reilley.

Right: The heroes — Beowulf, Finn, Walter — all belong to the highest circles of society. (Here the dashes immediately indicate to the reader that *Beowulf*, *Finn*, *Walter* are the real appositives. Without the use of these dashes the internal commas would make the interpretation difficult. Cf. The heroes, Beowulf, Finn, Walter, all belong to the highest circles of society.)

84. To indicate the equivalent of *to and including* between dates and numbers, and to compound capitalized two-word names, use the short dash (en dash). Cf. rules 65 ff.

Right: Pages 8-16; the decade 1791-1800; Brookland-Cacey High School.

85. To indicate the omission of a word or of letters in a word.

Right: Mrs. Y—, of Pennsylvania. Cf. rule 28.

86. To summarize the preceding part of a sentence. A careful study of this use of the dash will show that *rule 86* is in some respects the reverse of *rule 82*. It sets off substantives in the nominative case used for emphasis. This use of the nominative case may be called the *introductory nominative*, emphasizing the real subject of the sentence following the dash.

Right: The Black Plague, the Renaissance, and the Crusades — these are the underlying factors of this historical review.

(The introductory nominative construction illustrated here is a construction frequently used by speakers and writers to emphasize their opening statements.)

CAPITALIZATION

Capitalize:

87. The first letter of every sentence.

Right: Life is not very simple.

Right: We learn by studying.

88. The first letter of every expression representing a sentence. Cf. *rule 1*.

Right: Not at all.

Right: May I go? Yes.

NOTE. In the salutation of a letter capitalize the first word and the last word. In the complimentary close capitalize only the first word.

Right: *My dear John* or *Dear John* or *My dear Sir* or *My dear Madam*; *Verv sincerely yours* or *Sincerely yours*.

89. The first letter of a direct quotation. Cf. rule 74.

Right: Mary asked, "Shall we go?"

Right: The instructor said, "Please read this chapter."

NOTE 1. The first word of an indirect quotation or indirect question should not begin with a capital letter.

Right: He said that he would not go.

Right: The mother asked why he left his book. Cf. rule 105.

NOTE 2. If a sentence quotation is broken by a parenthetical expression, such as *he said, I asked, they replied*, the second part of the quotation should not begin with a capital letter.

Right: "Wait," the girl called, "for me."

Right: "I am going," she said, "as soon as he comes."

NOTE 3. A quoted phrase or other sentence element used in the writer's own sentence should not begin with a capital letter.

Right: With such a benefactor as he the quality of mercy is not strained. Cf. rule 79, note 10.

Right: When I was recalling the tempest in the tea pot that had resulted from too much meddling, I was satisfied that the whole affair had been much ado about nothing. Cf. rule 79, note 10.

90. The first letter of a direct question within a sentence, even though not quoted.

Right: The topic for discussion was: Should the South secede?

Right: The question is: Whom will you elect?

Right: The question Why should America awaken to the impossibility of a policy of isolation in the world today? should be very near the heart of every American who loves

liberty. (If one were to regard the appositive *Why . . . today?* as nonrestrictive, commas should be placed before the word *Why* and after the word *today?* since nonrestrictive appositives are set off by commas. Cf. rule 13. Also cf. rule 26 and note 1 under rule 49.)

91. Only the first letter of the first word in the first question when a sentence contains a number of short questions, or is made up of a number of short questions. This first letter is capitalized as the beginning of the sentence. Cf. rules 87, 88, and 90. Rule 91 does not invalidate rule 90.

NOTE. Sometimes this usage is hard to defend grammatically, historically, or logically; so some authors and printing houses capitalize each question and some do not. Most newspapers use the capitals. The Victorian authors — notably Newman — omitted them.

Right: When are you leaving? who is going with you? how long are you going to stay? are questions that I shall expect you to answer.

Right: What is wood but fuel? what is gas but fuel? what is coal but fuel?

Right: What should be America's foreign policy? why should Americans be educated to the fact that America necessarily is a part of any world order? why can not politicians rise to the level of statesmen? provoke intelligent people to think. Cf. this series punctuation with that in rules 16 and 26.

92. The first letter of the first word in the sentence following a colon when a complete sentence precedes that same colon.

Right: Here is the proposition that faces me: If I get the money, I will lend you the amount that you need.

NOTE. The first letter of the first word of a sentence element (not a complete sentence) following a colon is not capitalized unless it is a proper noun or adjective, or the equivalent of a proper one requiring a capital letter.

93. The first letter of every line of poetry.

Right: When I consider how my light is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
— Milton.

Cf. rules 74 and 75.

94. All proper nouns, and proper adjectives, the abbreviations of proper nouns and proper adjectives, and words derived from proper nouns. Cf. rule 105. Also 114, note 2.

Right: Mary will go to Raleigh.

Right: We shall begin studying English literature next week.

Right: The United States troops will not fail; neither will the South American troops.

Right: The Southern states are known generally as Dixie.
Cf. rules 99 and 100.

95. The names of the days of the week and the names of the months.

Right: She is coming the first Monday in May.

Right: Sunday school sometimes is called Sabbath school.

NOTE 1. The preposition governing a date or day of the week as its object must be understood even if not expressed.

Right: This is to be done (on) Thursday, June 28, 1940.

Right: I am coming (on) June 30, 1940.

NOTE 2. Capitalize the names of seasons only when they specifically are made a proper noun through personification or very special meaning.

Right: I like spring better than autumn.

Right: He came here last summer.

Right: A South American Spring is an example of one with a very special meaning. Cf. rules 94 and 107.

96. The names of holidays — also the word *day* used as a part of special days.

Right: Can you come on Memorial Day?

Right: She spent Thanksgiving Day with us.

Right: The Fourth of July is known as Independence Day.

97. The words *north*, *south*, *east*, and *west*, and their compounds and derivatives, when they designate parts of a country, but not when they indicate merely direction. Cf. rule 94.

Right: The South gave him a majority.

Right: The house faced southwest.

Right: I visited Western North Carolina.

Right: He moved from Northern Virginia to South Georgia.

NOTE. Certain manuals of style and some dictionaries, even though they definitely state *the rule* in sum and substance as it is stated here in rule 97, do tend to leave the student confused in his application of the rule for the capitals involved. An example of this confusion is to be found in one dictionary and in one manual of style in this exact wording: 'Upper Michigan, but northern Michigan.'

Clearly the illustration is likely to cause the student to think that *Upper Michigan* designates a section of Michigan, while *northern Michigan* could mean only a direction. This

terminology would cause no uncertainty in student minds if every student were accustomed to think through examples logically, and to know in addition how each state and country is regarded by its citizens. Upper Michigan means the U. P. or Upper Peninsula, the region north of the Straits of Mackinaw. The term Upper Michigan is well known to all those who ply the Great Lakes or who live near them. *Upper Michigan* definitely is a local term. Unfortunately, however, *Upstate New York* may mean the *Northern Section* of the State to a New Yorker, and *Upper Michigan* may mean the *upper Northern Section* of Michigan to a citizen of Michigan, but just as definitely the term *Northern Virginia* or the term *South Georgia* means not a direction but a section of the state to a resident of Virginia or Georgia. No one thinks of the term *Upper Virginia* when a section of the state is intended; no one thinks of the term *Lower Georgia* when the *Southern Section* of Georgia is mentioned. *Northern Virginia* and *South Georgia* mean only sections of the state to those people who know Virginia and Georgia.

The point for the student to remember is this: One must be taught to recognize that either *Upper* or *Northern* or *North*, or *Lower* or *Southern* or *South* may be applied to a section of a state or nation, and that the meaning of the word, and the meaning alone, not the form or spelling, determines the capitalization of that word.

When such words as *north*, *south*, *east*, *west*, or their adjective forms *northern*, *southern*, *eastern*, *western* are used to indicate directions only, they are not capitalized. When, however, they are used to designate divisions of the world or geographical sections of a state or nation, they are capitalized.

If the words mean no more than the points on a weather vane as it shifts in the wind, the words can hardly mean more than direction and then are written with small letters. If

the words represent space or place, they should be written in capitals.

98. Nouns and personal pronouns referring to the Deity, as well as the Bible and the names of its parts or versions, and the sacred books of other religions. Cf. rule 180 for italics.

Right: I know that He is the Lord.

Right: I like the Gospels better than any other part of the Bible.

Right: The Koran is the scriptures of the Mohammedans, containing the professed revelations to Mohammed.

Right: The body of Jewish civil and canonical law, consisting of the combined Mishna and Gemara, is called the Talmud.

NOTE. Personal pronouns, pronominal possessives, and adjectives referring to the Deity are not capitalized when the antecedent of the pronoun is expressed, the reason being simply that the antecedent itself identifies the Deity. Without the expressed antecedent the capitalized personal pronoun serves to identify the Deity.

Right: Christ loves his followers.

Right: He is the Son of God.

Right: We praise God for his goodness.

Right: The Savior of the world is He.

Right: God works in a mysterious way his wonders to perform.

Right: Man worships Him.

99. The names of creeds, confessions, religious denominations, monastic orders, and the word *church* when it is used to designate a specific organization or building. Cf. rule 180.

Right: The "Apostles' Creed" is found in *The Methodist Hymnal*.

Right: The Church shall fight against the State.

NOTE. The word *state* is capitalized when it denotes a specific political division, when it stands for a name, and when it is used as a part of a specific organization, etc. Cf. rules 94 and 100.

Right: The order of Jesuits was founded by Ignatius Loyola in 1534.

Right: St. Dominic founded the Dominican order in 1215.

100. A common noun when it takes the place of a proper noun or is used as a part of a proper name.

Right: Uncle John lives on Green Street.

Right: I went to Edgewood School. I went to the School. (Edgewood understood.)

NOTE. A common noun when made a component part of a proper noun should be capitalized. Slovenly newspaper usage, based on haste, does not invalidate this rule.

Right: The Hudson River is one of America's best known rivers.

Right: Duke University should be spelled with a capital because under the law the proper noun *Duke University* is a corporate body, and as an eleemosynary corporation designates a particular school.

Right: English literature is written with a small letter in literature just as are French, Greek, and all other literatures because the word *English* functions as a proper adjective, and not as a proper noun, the word *literature* being a common noun.

101. The names of historical events, periods, and documents.

Right: Battle of Bunker Hill, Reformation, Declaration of Independence.

102. The names of political parties, governmental bodies, organizations, and institutions.

Right: There are many members of the Democratic party in Congress.

Right: Books are ordered from the Pennsylvania Book Company for students of New York University.

Right: The Episcopal Church is the established Church of England.

Right: The Department of the Interior, as well as the other departments of the Federal Government, is conducted for the best interest of the American people.

Right: The Smithsonian Institute is in Washington, D.C.

NOTE. Federal governmental bodies are always capitalized; state governmental bodies are not capitalized unless the state is named. City and county courts are always in small letters. Cf. rule 99, note.

103. The names of school subjects when derived from proper nouns or when used with numbers to specify a particular course.

NOTE. When a departmental name is used with the names of school subjects, the subjects are capitalized if the departmental name represents a particular department in a particular school. Except as defined in rule 103 and 103, note, the names of school subjects are regarded as common nouns and are not capitalized.

Right: I am studying biology and English.

Right: Neither psychology nor mathematics is required.

Right: The work in chemistry is exacting, but that in French gives me more concern.

Right: A department of religion or physics is a college or university scholastic unit.

Right: The Princeton Department of Religion is well known.

Right: Have you studied Biology 227?

Right: Before you enroll, you should be told that Psychology 101 is a lecture course.

Capitalize the first word, but not the second, in a binomial scientific name in zoology or botany. A binomial name is a two-word name, the first being that of the genera and the second that of the species.

Right: Skink (*Scincus officinalis*).

Right: Common Eel (*Anguilla anguilla*).

Right: Aconite (*Aconitum napellus*).

104. The titles of honor or office used formally with a proper noun or in connection with one.

Right: Do you know Doctor Smith? (Also — Do you know Dr. Smith?)

Right: This week President Roosevelt is at Lake Junaluska.

Right: When I spoke to Governor Baldwin, I did not repeat Secretary Wallace's remark.

Right: It is well to remember that Justice Cardoza was known as the United States Supreme Court Justice who wrote his decisions in singing prose.

Right: The judge and the doctor gave us advice.

Right: The Secretary of State conferred with his superior, the President of the United States.

NOTE. Titles of Federal governmental offices begin with a capital letter even when those offices are mentioned apart from the name of the person holding them. Such Federal offices represent particular things. State offices are not

capitalized unless the name of the office holder is mentioned along with them or unless such office or office holder is unmistakably understood. Cf. rule 99, note.

Right: The Secretary of State of Virginia made the address.

Right: The secretary of state made the report to the governor.

105. The titles or names in family relationship: (1) when such a title of family relationship is not modified by a possessive case, (2) when such a title of family relationship is not modified by an article, (3) when such a title of family relationship is used with a proper name, is used to take the place of a proper name, and especially when used in direct address. Cf. rule 89, note 1, example, and rule 94.

Right: Did you know that Uncle Sam is visiting Father?

Right: Did you know that Uncle Sam is visiting my father?

Right: He saw Daddy Perry and Mother Jones.

Right: He saw Daddy and Mother.

Right: When I was talking with him, Mother, I forgot your message.

NOTE. The use of a possessive case modifying such a title of family relationship immediately makes a common noun of the word so modified. So, also, does the article when it modifies such a noun.

Right: Did you see my cousin with my mother?

Right: A father or a mother has a right to expect obedience from a child.

106. The first word and the last word in the salutation of a letter. This statement means that the first

word and all of the nouns or noun-equivalents in the salutation will begin with a capital letter. In the complimentary close the first word alone should begin with a capital.

Right: Dear Mary,

Right: Dear Uncle John,

Right: My dear Mary,

Right: My dear Uncle John,

Right: My dear Sir:

Right: Yours truly,

Right: Yours very truly,

Right: Very sincerely yours,

Right: Sincerely yours,

107. Nouns that clearly are personified.

Right: O Death, where is thy sting?

Right: To him Nature is a true friend. Cf. rule 95, note 2.

108. The words *whereas* and *resolved* and the word immediately following each (usually *that*, *this*, *the*, etc.) in formal resolutions.

Right: *Whereas*, This society shall become a member of the National Society. . . .

Right: *Resolved*, That the office of the secretary shall be filled by Mr. James Brown. . . .

NOTE. The word immediately following the conjunction *Whereas* or the participle *Resolved* in such a construction is capitalized since it is the first word in the *preamble* and similar to rule 87.

109. The article *the* when it is part of a proper name or title or when it is incorporated as part of the legal

name, except when referring to a newspaper. In the titles of books and of a few magazines the article *the* usually is capitalized. Cf. rule 180, note.

Right: The Reverend Mr. Jones.

Right: The Reverend Dr. William Stafford.

Right: The *New York Times*, but the London *Times*.

Right: Dickens, Charles. *The Tale of Two Cities*.

NOTE. The words *reverend* and *honorable* are marks of respect, and not titles when they are used preceding proper names; and for this reason they should be capitalized and preceded by the article *the* as in the illustrations in rule 109. Cf. rule 180.

110. The initials of a person's name and all abbreviations except such abbreviations as *e.g.*, *viz.*, and the like.

Right: Mr. C. C. Jones, Ph.D.

Right: The shipment came C.O.D.

Right: The R.A.F. is known as the best of all the air forces of Europe in point of training.

NOTE. The abbreviations *Mr.* and *Mrs.* are followed by periods. The word *Miss* is not an abbreviation, and for this reason no period is placed after it. The mark of highest respect to be paid a man is that paid through the use of the designation *Mr.* meaning *gentleman*.

111. The first word in each division of a topical outline, be it main division or subdivision. Cf. rule 190.

Right: I. The legislative branch of American government.

A. The Federal Government.

1. The Senate.

2. The House of Representatives.

B. The state government.

1. The state senate.

2. The state house of representatives.

C. The municipal government.

NOTE. For the use of capital letters in reference to the governmental bodies named here cf. rule 102, note.

112. The words indicating important divisions of a book or book series.

Right: Did you enjoy studying Act I?

Right: She is reading Chapter VI.

Right: I read the Preface and the Appendix.

113. Letters like *I* and *O* when they represent words used independently. If the interjection *oh* is used, no capital is used unless *oh* comes at the beginning of a sentence.

Right: Shall I go?

Right: It is all oh, so terrible!

Right: Oh, I can hardly believe it!

Right: O Lord, help us, we pray thee.

NOTE. In American names, particles such as *de*, *von*, and the like are capitalized. In foreign names, however, the particle is not capitalized when the name is preceded by a given name (forename), a title, or a name denoting professional rank.

Right: American: Johann De Kalb; foreign: Johann de Kalb.

Right: American: Paul Von Hindenburg; foreign: Von Hindenburg or Paul von Hindenburg.

114. The names of planets, constellations, and other astronomical bodies.

Right: I saw Jupiter's nine moons.

Right: The Southern Cross; the Big Dipper; the Milky Way.

Right: The Sun and the Moon as heavenly bodies light the World.

NOTE 1. The words *sun*, *moon*, and *world* or *earth* when they are spoken of other than as heavenly bodies or a planet are not to be capitalized.

Right: The sun shines brightly today, but the world seems dreary.

NOTE 2. As a note to *capitalization*, with special reference to rule 94, it should be understood that a proper noun or adjective through frequent, commonplace use may cease to be regarded as *proper*. Such an illustration is to be found in the word *panama*. Another such illustration is the word *roman*. Both *panama* and *roman* have uses that are proper, but they also serve as common adjectives in the following sentences:

I bought a panama hat.

Please set this article in roman type.

Rules for Writing the Titles of Themes, Magazines, and Books:

115. The first word and all other words except prepositions, articles, and conjunctions should be capitalized in the title of a theme or book. In magazine titles the preposition, article, or conjunction is capitalized only when it stands first in the title, and is not capitalized then unless it is distinctly a part of the title. Cf. rule 180 and note.

Right: *The Mill on the Floss; If Winter Comes; What Is*

English; My Duty as a Citizen; the Country Gentleman; the North American Review.

NOTE 1. Auxiliary verbs are capitalized without exception when they are used in the title of a theme, magazine, or book. They are as important as any other word in the title.

Right: Morning Will Come; The Yanks Are Coming; They Shall Not Pass.

NOTE 2. The length of a word has nothing to do with its capitalization in a title, rather is it the value or importance of the word that determines its capitalization.

Right: What Is English?; The Greeks Have a Word for It. (Here the short words *Is* and *It* are just as important as any word five times their length could be.)

NOTE 3. The fact that prepositions, articles, and conjunctions are capitalized when they are a part of the title appearing on a textbook cover, etc., is no exception to rule 115. Such titles on the covers of books usually are set up wholly in small capitals. Cf. rule 180, note.

Right: LITERATURE AND LIFE, BOOK II; A BRIEF HANDBOOK OF COMPOSITION.

NOTE 4. The title of a theme should not be italicized or enclosed within quotation marks except when such a title is used within the contents of the theme itself. The purpose of such italicizing or enclosing within quotations is to indicate that the group of words is to be taken as having a special meaning not indicated by the words alone, such as being the equivalent of a substantive. Quotation marks enclosing a title at the heading of a theme or on the folded front of a theme are incorrect. At the heading of a theme a title written "What Literature Can Do for Me" is wrong. The quotation marks should be omitted, and no italicizing should

be done. In the body of a theme, as a part of the contents of the theme itself, quotation marks or italics would be correct.

Right: I am writing a theme on "What Literature Can Do for Me." (This illustration of the theme title within quotations is correct because when the title functions within quotation marks, it functions as a substantive. In exposition, a quoted sentence or a quoted title functions just as would any noun or other substantive.)

NOTE 5. No mark of punctuation should follow the title of a theme, magazine article, or book unless that punctuation is a question mark or exclamation point or period used for the purpose of indicating that such a title is a whole sentence and not a dependent clause or phrase or topic.

Wrong: *Gone with the Wind.*

Right: *Gone with the Wind*

Right: *Why Is a Hobo?*

Right: "Hold the Line!" (Within quotation marks to indicate that it is an article within a magazine. Italics for main titles.) Cf. rules 76 and 180.

NOTE 6. In a title like the one *Is Spain Done For?* the word *For* is an idiomatic adverb through use, and not a preposition. Cf. rule 115.

116. Between the title and the body of a theme a double space should be left for the sake of clearness. This term *double space* means twice that space left between the lines of the theme itself.

If the title of the theme is:

How I Learned to Swim

the space below the title should be twice the space left

elsewhere between the lines of the theme itself. Then the main body of the theme will begin with some such sentence as

When I first began to pay attention to the world about me, I realized that I had one advantage over many of my close friends, for I lived near the water. Thus it was that very early in life I learned to love the water and....

117. In writing a title that requires the use of more than one line, the beginning of the second line and of any subsequent lines in the title should be indented. This placement of the indentation, however, is determined by the make-up used by the publisher. Ordinarily it would be something like the following illustration.

Right: Rules for the Use of Capital Letters,
with Illustrations

A G R E E M E N T O F S U B J E C T A N D V E R B

118. The verb must agree with its subject in number and person. The use of such expressions as *with*, *together with*, *as well as*, and *along with* does not change the number of the original subject, for such expressions do not create compounds but are merely prepositions modifying the original subject.

Right: The *coach*, as well as the team, *was* blamed for the defeat.

Right: The *president*, together with the dean and the advisers, *was* entertained.

Right: *He*, along with all his family, *was* invited.

119. The predicate agrees with the subject and not with the predicate noun.

Right: American homes are the backbone of the nation.

Right: There are five here. (The expletive adverb is not the real subject, for the real subject is *five* standing in the position of the predicate nominative but not being the predicate nominative.)

Right: It is hard to believe that the American courts of law do not always mete out justice. Cf. To believe that the American courts do not always mete out justice is hard. Cf. rule 123.

Right: The most essential part of any vehicle is the wheels.

Right: The wheels are the most essential part of any vehicle.

120. A compound subject used as a unit takes a singular predicate.

Right: The red, white, and blue waves on high.

Right: A league and a half lies between us and the shore.

Right: The sum and the substance of the report is this.

Right: The sum and substance of the report is this.

Right: Two and two is four. (The sum of two and two is four.)

Right: Four times four is sixteen. (The product of four times four is sixteen.)

Right: Four from eight is four. (The remainder of four from eight is four.)

NOTE. Quite frankly, there are many people who will contend that such a sentence as *Two and two is four* should be *Two and two are four*. Logic, and not usage, disproves any such contention. The argument in support of the singular verb *is* is this: The subject of the verb is the understood word

sum, while the words *two* and *two* are in the objective case as the object of the preposition *of*, and the sentence is in reality: *The sum of two and two is four*. As a similar example, take the accepted: *A league and a half lies between us and the shore*. Here the rule is that when a compound subject is regarded as a unit, the subject is singular, and so is the predicate. *Two and two* is a unified subject, the equivalent of the *sum of two and two*. If one insists upon a different line of argument, he will have such a sentence as *Two and two are two two's*; that is, if he insists upon logic and a plural verb.

The product of two times two is four, or *Two times two is four*, for the sentence is *Two being multiplied by two is four*; and no one believes that a participle phrase *being multiplied by two* can change the number of the first *two* which definitely is a sum, namely, the singular, as in *Two is the number*.

The final argument to disprove the need of a plural verb is found in the third example, *Four from eight is four*, for no one will for a moment argue that the sentence should read: *Four from eight are four*. If the remainder in subtraction requires a singular predicate, the product in multiplication and the sum in addition also require a singular predicate.

121. Collective nouns should be used with singular predicates. Usage sometimes permits the use of a plural predicate with a collective noun. Collective nouns are singular, however, and are not intended primarily to represent a plural idea.

Right: A *team* of horses *was* coming through the field.

Right: The *jury* *returned* its verdict.

NOTE. If one wishes to use a collective noun with a plural predicate, it is better that he recast his sentence in some such simple fashion as this:

Right: The *members* of the jury *returned* their verdict.

Right: The congregation voted its approval. Or,

Right: The members of the congregation voted their approval.

122. Subjects introduced by correlatives have their predicate agreeing in number with the nearer subject. In like manner when the subject is one that indicates change in person, from one part of the subject to another part, the verb agrees in person as well as in number with the nearer subject.

Right: Neither the teacher nor the students were given complimentary tickets.

Right: Either you or he was there.

Right: Neither the students nor I am to blame.

NOTE: The two examples under rule 123 do not contradict one another, nor does either one of them contradict example 2 under rule 119, the reason being this: The expletive *there*, or *it*, has no *person* of its own, but assumes *person* in keeping with the *person* of the real subject standing in the position of the predicate nominative. On the other hand, the expletives *there* and *it* can not control the verb.

123. In sentences in which the expletive *it* or *there* stands in the position of the subject the real subject follows in the position of the predicate nominative.

Right: There are ten boys on the team. Cf. Ten boys are on the team.

Right: It is I. Cf. I am it. Also, cf. rule 119, illustration 3.

THE USE OF VERBS:
ADDENDA TO RULES 118-123

124. The student can master the correct agreement of subjects and predicates only after first mastering the conjugation of the English verbs. This mastery requires the knowledge of the conjugation of intransitive verbs, of transitive verbs, and of auxiliary verbs. The copula verbs, like *am, was, been; seem, seemed, seemed; appear, appeared, appeared; feel, felt, felt; etc.*, are similar to intransitive verbs and are included under the intransitive terminology. The word *copula* means *linking* or *joining*, for copula verbs link subject and predicate nominative, or subject and predicate adjective.

To master the use of verbs, the student must understand the following facts:

A. That the inflection of an English verb into its modes, voices, tenses, numbers, and persons is called conjugation.

B. That the *finite* verb-forms are the indicative, the subjunctive, and the imperative modes.

C. That the *infinite* verb-forms are the infinitive, the participle, and the gerund.

D. That an *intransitive* verb is one that requires no object to complete the meaning of the finite forms. (The infinite forms of both transitive and intransitive verbs, however, may take an object, for the substantive used as the subject or the object of an infinite verb-form is in the objective case.)

Right: Birds fly. (The finite form *fly*, of the intransitive verb *fly*, requires no object here.) (If the passive voice were used, the subject *birds* would assume the function of both the subject and the object since the subject is acted upon by some agent, as in *Birds are forced to fly*.) (The infinite form of the transitive verb *fly* may have an object, as in *The pilots are taught to fly airplanes*. Here the noun *airplanes* is the object of the infinitive *to fly*.) (Also, *Carrier pigeons are trained to fly races*.) (Also, the infinite form *flying* may have an object, as in *The pilots in flying airplanes become skilled fliers*. The noun *airplanes* in the objective case is the object of the gerund *flying*, which itself is the object of the preposition *in*.) (In the sentence, *The pilots flying airplanes become skilled fliers*, the noun *airplanes* is the object of the participle *flying*, which is used as an adjectival modifier of the noun *pilots*.)

NOTE. The student must realize that a verb may be intransitive by its nature and yet have a transitive *form*, also, in its function. The verb *fly* is an example of such a verb.

E. That a *transitive* verb is one that requires an object to complete the meaning of the *finite* forms in the *active* voice, while in the *passive* voice the subject of the finite forms is acted upon by an agent.

Right: The backfield player punted the football. (Active voice.)

Right: The football was punted by the quarterback. (Passive voice.)

F. That *voice* is the property of verbs, through which it is shown that the subject is acting upon an object (Active voice: *I saw the fair*.) or through which it is

shown that the subject has no object (*Birds fly.*) or through which it is shown that the subject is completed with a predicate adjective (*I am well.*) or with a predicate nominative (*I am he.*) or through which it is shown that the subject is acted upon (Passive voice: *The money was stolen.*), *the finite forms of the verb being the only ones considered here.* Cf. D, preceding.

G. That *copula* verbs are called *linking*, or *joining*, verbs, but really are nothing more than intransitive verbs that are followed by a *predicate nominative* or a *predicate adjective*. Cf. rule 124 ahead.

Right: I feel good. (Subject linked to predicate adjective.)

Right: I am he. (Subject linked to predicate nominative.)

Right: It seemed impossible. (Subject linked to predicate adjective.)

H. That *all predicates are verbs*, but that *not all verbs are predicates*, because only *finite* verb-forms are used as predicates. Cf. B and C, preceding.

Right: I wanted to swim. (The predicate is *wanted*; yet the infinitive *to swim* is also a verb-form, but not a finite one.)

Right: I chose swimming as my exercise. (The predicate is *chose*; yet the gerund *swimming* is also a verb-form, but not a finite one.)

Right: Swimming in the lake, I swallowed dirty water. (The predicate is *swallowed*; yet the participle *swimming* is a verb-form, but not a finite one, and not a predicate.)

I. That *finite* verb-forms have their subject in the nominative case, but that *infinite* verb-forms, when they have subjects, have them in the objective case.

J. That the infinitive and the gerund *are always*

used as the equivalents of nouns, called substantives, and that the participle *is always* used as an adjective, except when the participle loses its identity and becomes a part of a compound verb-tense, such as *have gone*, or *am going*, or *was preparing*, etc.

Right: I want *to go*. (Object of *want*.) (Sometimes called complementary.)

Right: I went *to study*. (Object of preposition *for*, once expressed, now sometimes understood and sometimes expressed, as in *For me to go is impossible*. To say that the infinitive *to study* is an infinitive of purpose is to say nothing, for in reality the infinitive *to study* is the object of the preposition *for* and the entire phrase, *for (me) to study* is the adverbial phrase of purpose. The contracted form *to study* leaves the infinitive in the same case, the objective, as the object in the elliptical phrase. If the gerund *studying* replaced the infinitive *to study*, the preposition *for* would be expressed, as in *I am going for studying* or *for the purpose of studying*.

Right: *Swimming* is healthful. (Subject of *is*.) (Gerund.)

Right: I chose *swimming*. (Object of *chose*.) (Gerund.)

Right: He reported *for swimming*. (Object of *for*.) (Gerund.)

Right: The *swimming* instructor is here. (Adjectival modifier of *instructor*.) (Participle.)

K. That when the *infinitives* and the *participles* are used with auxiliary verbs to construct progressive, emphatic, or potential verb-forms, and also when they are used to construct the perfect tense-forms, they cease to be infinite verb-forms and become parts of the compound finite forms, and as such, function as predicates.

Right: I *can* (to) go; I *am* to go; I *may* (to) go; I *might* (to) go; I *shall* (to) go; I *will* (to) go; I *should* (to) go; I *would* (to) go; I *am* going; I *was* going; I *have* gone; I *had* gone; I *shall have* gone; I *do* (to) go; I *did* (to) go; etc. Cf. Webster for *can*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, etc., in this infinitive construction.

NOTE. If the student has any doubt about any of these forms, he should consult *Webster's Dictionary*, for a quick glance at the meaning and use of *shall*, *will*, *can*, *may*, or the like will remove the doubt.

L. That *mode* or *mood* used in the conjugation of an English verb means the manner of the action, being, or state of being of the verb-form: the *indicative* stating a fact; the *subjunctive* stating a wish, a supposition, a possibility, a purpose, or a conclusion; and the *imperative* stating a command, an entreaty, or an exhortation (advice) to the one spoken to. That the *indicative mode* is a *fact mode*: (*It is.*) (*I saw.*) (*You came.*) That the *subjunctive* is the *thought mode*: (*If I may go.*) (*Were I to go.*) (*If I should go.*)

M. That a *regular verb* is also called a *weak verb*, and forms its past indicative by adding *d*, *t*, or *ed* to the present active indicative stem. That an *irregular verb* is also called a *strong verb*, and forms its past tense indicative by an internal vowel change without any suffix. (As one outstanding example of the irregular verb, study the verb *go* in *Webster's Dictionary*.)

N. That the auxiliary verbs that have only *two principal parts* are used only as auxiliary verbs. (*Shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, etc.) These verbs never function independently as regular or irregular verbs, but are used only as *helping verbs*, the auxiliaries of some regular or

irregular verb which may be either expressed or understood.

O. That the auxiliary verbs that have *three principal parts* are used both as auxiliary verbs helping some regular or irregular verb, and as independent regular or irregular verbs. (*Am, was, been; do, did, done; have, had, had.*) There are both type forms: (*I am here; I am working here; I was there; I was working there; I do; I do know; I did; I did go; I did the task; I have time; I have had time; I had time; I had had time; etc.*)

P. That no English verb, regular or irregular, can be conjugated without the aid of the several auxiliary verbs with which the compound tense-forms are constructed.

Q. That the subjunctive mode uses no *future* or *future perfect* tense because the present tense subjunctive implies future fulfillment.

R. That the third person singular subjunctive verb-form is the same as that of the first person. (No change.)

S. That the *progressive mode*, *emphatic mode*, and *potential mode* really are forms within the indicative and the subjunctive modes.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS

125. The Verb To Be (Active voice only):

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present active indicative, *am*.

Past active indicative, *was*.

Past participle, *been*.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present

I am.

You are.

He is.

We are.

You are.

They are.

Past

I was.

You were.

He was.

We were.

You were.

They were.

Future

I shall be.

You will be.

He will be.

We shall be.

You will be.

They will be.

Present Perfect

I have been.

You have been.

He has been.

We have been.

You have been.

They have been.

Past Perfect

I had been.

You had been.

He had been.

We had been.

You had been.

They had been.

Future Perfect

I shall have been.

You will have been.

He will have been.

We shall have been.

You will have been.

They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
(Often preceded by *if*.)

Present

I be.	We be.
You be.	You be.
He be.	They be.

Past

I were.	We were.
You were.	You were.
He were.	They were.

Present Perfect

I have been.	We have been.
You have been.	You have been.
He have been.	They have been.

Past Perfect

I had been.	We had been.
You had been.	You had been.
He had been.	They had been.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present

Be, or do be.

INFINITIVES

Present

To be.

Perfect

To have been.

PARTICIPLES

Present

Being.

Past

Been.

Perfect

Having been.

GERUNDS

Present

Being.

Perfect

Having been.

126. The Verb Have:

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present active indicative, *have*.Past active indicative, *had*.Past participle, *had*.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present

I have.

You have.

He has.

We have.

You have.

They have.

Past

I had.

You had.

He had.

We had.

You had.

They had.

Future

I shall have.

You will have.

He will have.

We shall have.

You will have.

They will have.

Present Perfect

I have had.

You have had.

He has had.

We have had.

You have had.

They have had.

Past Perfect

I had had.

You had had.

He had had.

We had had.

You had had.

They had had.

Future Perfect

I shall have had.
 You will have had.
 He will have had.

We shall have had.
 You will have had.
 They will have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
 (Often preceded by *if*.)

Present

I have.
 You have.
 He have.

We have.
 You have.
 They have.

Past

I had.
 You had.
 He had.

We had.
 You had.
 They had.

Present Perfect

I have had.
 You have had.
 He have had.

We have had.
 You have had.
 They have had.

Past Perfect

I had had.
 You had had.
 He had had.

We had had.
 You had had.
 They had had.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present

Have, or do have.

INFINITIVES

Present

To have.

Perfect

To have had.

PARTICIPLES

Present

Having.

Past

Had.

Perfect

Having had.

GERUNDS

Present

Having.

Perfect

Having had.

127. The Verb Do:

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present active indicative, *do*.Past active indicative, *did*.Past participle, *done*.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present

I do.

You do.

He does.

We do.

You do.

They do.

Past

I did.

You did.

He did.

We did.

You did.

They did.

Future

I shall do.

You will do.

He will do.

We shall do.

You will do.

They will do.

Present Perfect

I have done.

You have done.

He has done.

We have done.

You have done.

They have done.

Past Perfect

I had done.
 You had done.
 He had done.

We had done.
 You had done.
 They had done.

Future Perfect

I shall have done.
 You will have done.
 He will have done.

We shall have done.
 You will have done.
 They will have done.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
 (Often preceded by *if*.)

Present

I do.
 You do.
 He do.

We do.
 You do.
 They do.

Past

I did.
 You did.
 He did.

We did.
 You did.
 They did.

Present Perfect

I have done.
 You have done.
 He have done.

We have done.
 You have done.
 They have done.

Past Perfect

I had done.
 You had done.
 He had done.

We had done.
 You had done.
 They had done.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present

Do, *or* be done.

INFINITIVES

Present

To do.

Perfect

To have done.

PARTICIPLES

Present

Doing.

Past

Done.

Perfect

Having done.

GERUNDS

Present

Doing.

Perfect

Having done

128. The Verb Shall:

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present active indicative, *shall*.Past active indicative, *should*.

Past participle, (No form).

129. The Verb Will:Present active indicative, *will*.Past active indicative, *would*.

Past participle, (No form).

130. The Verb Can:Present active indicative, *can*.Past active indicative, *could*.

Past participle, (No form).

131. The Verb May:Present active indicative, *may*.Past active indicative, *might*.

Past participle, (No form).

132. The Verb* Must:Present active indicative, *must*.Past active indicative, *must*.

Past participle, (No form).

133. The Verb Ought:**

NOTE. Originally the past indicative, and later also the past participle, of *owe*.

NOTE. The student should understand that these auxiliary verbs (128-133) have only two principal parts (the participles and infinitives are lacking) and are used only as auxiliary verbs. They regularly are followed by the infinitive form of the verb of which they are an auxiliary. The infinitive without *to* follows all of the verbs except *ought*, with which the *to* is expressed. Cf. each of these verbs in *Webster's Collegiate or Unabridged Dictionary*.

134. The Conjugation of the Regular Transitive Verb Call in Both the Active and the Passive Voice Forms

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present active indicative, *call*.Past active indicative, *called*.Past participle, *called*.

INDICATIVE MODE

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

I call.

You call.

He calls.

We call.

You call.

They call.

* *Must* is used without inflection.

** *Ought* is followed by the present infinitive to form the present tense, and by the perfect infinitive to form the past tense.

Past

I called.

You called.

He called.

We called.

You called.

They called.

Future

I shall call.

You will call.

He will call.

We shall call.

You will call.

They will call.

Present Perfect

I have called.

You have called.

He has called.

We have called.

You have called.

They have called.

Past Perfect

I had called.

You had called.

He had called.

We had called.

You had called.

They had called.

Future Perfect

I shall have called.

You will have called.

He will have called.

We shall have called.

You will have called.

They will have called.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
(Often preceded by *if*.)

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

I call.

You call.

He call.

We call.

You call.

They call.

Past

I called.

You called.

He called.

We called.

You called.

They called.

Present Perfect

I have called.

You have called.

He have called.

We have called.

You have called.

They have called.

Past Perfect

I had called.

We had called.

You had called.

You had called.

He had called.

They had called.

IMPERATIVE MODE

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

Call.

INFINITIVES

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

To call.

Perfect

To have called.

PARTICIPLES

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

Calling.

Past

Called.

Perfect

Having called.

GERUNDS

ACTIVE VOICE

Present

Calling.

Perfect

Having called.

INDICATIVE MODE

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

I am called.

We are called.

You are called.

You are called.

He is called.

They are called.

Past

I was called.

You were called.

He was called.

We were called.

You were called.

They were called.

Future

I shall be called.

You will be called.

He will be called.

We shall be called.

You will be called.

They will be called.

Present Perfect

I have been called.

You have been called.

He has been called.

We have been called.

You have been called.

They have been called.

Past Perfect

I had been called.

You had been called.

He had been called.

We had been called.

You had been called.

They had been called.

Future Perfect

I shall have been called.

You will have been called.

He will have been called.

We shall have been called.

You will have been called.

They will have been called.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE
(Often preceded by *if*.)

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

I be called.

You be called.

He be called.

We be called.

You be called.

They be called.

Past

I were called.

You were called

He were called.

We were called.

You were called.

They were called.

Present Perfect

I have been called.

You have been called.

He have been called.

We have been called.

You have been called.

They have been called.

Past Perfect

I had been called.
 You had been called.
 He had been called.

We had been called.
 You had been called.
 They had been called.

IMPERATIVE MODE

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

Be called.

INFINITIVES

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

To be called.

Perfect

To have been called.

PARTICIPLE

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

Being called.

Past

Been called.

Perfect

Having been called.

GERUNDS

PASSIVE VOICE

Present

Being called.

Perfect

Having been called.

135. In addition to the *regular forms* of the indicative mode, the subjunctive mode, the imperative mode, and the infinitives, participles, and gerunds, there are the so-called *potential*, *emphatic*, and *progressive* forms.

These forms are regarded sometimes as modes; yet it is better that they be thought of not as modes separate from the indicative, subjunctive, and the imperative, but as forms within those modes. Thus, the present tense of the verb *call* in the active voice is:

PRESENT ACTIVE INDICATIVE

Potential

I can call.	We can call.
You can call.	You can call.
He can call.	They can call.

Emphatic

I do call.	We do call.
You do call.	You do call.
He does call.	They do call.

Progressive

I am calling.	We are calling.
You are calling.	You are calling.
He is calling.	They are calling.

PRESENT ACTIVE SUBJUNCTIVE

Potential

If I can call.	If we can call.
If you can call.	If you can call.
If he can call.	If they can call.

Emphatic

If I do call.	If we do call.
If you do call.	If you do call.
If he do call.	If they do call.

Progressive

If I be calling.	If we be calling.
If you be calling.	If you be calling.
If he be calling.	If they be calling.

PRESENT ACTIVE IMPERATIVE

Potential

	<i>Emphatic</i>
Do call.	
	<i>Progressive</i>
Be calling.	
	PRESENT ACTIVE INFINITIVE
	<i>Potential</i>
.....	
	<i>Emphatic</i>
.....	
	<i>Progressive</i>
To be calling.	
	PRESENT ACTIVE PARTICIPLE
	<i>Potential</i>
.....	
	<i>Emphatic</i>
.....	
	<i>Progressive</i>
.....	
	PRESENT ACTIVE GERUND
	<i>Potential</i>
.....	
	<i>Emphatic</i>
.....	
	<i>Progressive</i>
.....	

136. Wherever the meaning will permit, potential, emphatic, and progressive forms may be used to replace the ordinary tense forms.

To understand the formation of the regularly conjugated verb-forms of transitive or intransitive verbs, regular or irregular, the student should know the following facts:

1. (a) The *present tense indicative* is formed from the first principal part of the verb when the voice is active.

1. (b) The *present tense indicative* is formed from the present tense indicative of the verb *to be* and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

2. (a) The *past tense indicative* is formed from the second principal part of the verb when the voice is active.

2. (b) The *past tense indicative* is formed from the past tense indicative of the verb *to be* and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

3. (a) The *future tense indicative* is formed from the auxiliary verb *shall* or the auxiliary verb *will*, and the present active infinitive (with the *to* omitted) of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

3. (b) The *future tense indicative* is formed from the auxiliary verb *shall* or the auxiliary verb *will*, and the present passive infinitive of the *main verb* (with the *to* omitted) when the voice is passive.

4. (a) The *present perfect tense indicative* is formed from the first principal part of the verb *have* and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

4. (b) The *present perfect tense indicative* is formed from the first principal part of the verb *have*, the past participle of the verb *to be*, and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

5. (a) The *past perfect tense indicative* is formed from the past tense of the verb *have* (the second principal part) and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

5. (b) The *past perfect tense indicative* is formed from the past tense of the verb *have* (second principal

part), the past participle of the verb *to be*, and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

6. (a) The *future perfect tense indicative* is formed from the auxiliary verb *shall* or the auxiliary verb *will*, the first principal part of the verb *have*, and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

6. (b) The *future perfect tense indicative* is formed from the auxiliary verb *shall* or the auxiliary verb *will*, the first principal part of the verb *have*, the past participle of the verb *to be*, and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

7. (a) The *present tense indicative potential* is formed from the auxiliary verb *can* and the present active infinitive (with the *to* omitted) of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

7. (b) The *present tense indicative potential* is formed from the auxiliary verb *can* and the present passive infinitive (with the *to* omitted) of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

8. (a) The *present tense indicative emphatic* is formed from the first principal part of the verb *do* and the present active infinitive (with the *to* omitted) of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

8. (b) The *present tense indicative emphatic*, if it should be needed, would be formed from the first principal part of the verb *do* and the present passive infinitive (with the *to* omitted) of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

9. (a) The *present tense indicative progressive* is formed from the present tense active voice indicative of the verb *to be* and the present active participle of the *main verb* when the voice is active.

9. (b) The *present tense indicative progressive* is formed from the present tense active voice indicative of the verb *to be*, the present active participle of the verb *to be*, and the past participle of the *main verb* when the voice is passive.

The other forms of the potential, emphatic, and progressive tense combinations are constructed through a similar use of the principal parts chosen according to the time that they express.

FORM, MEANING, AND USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

137. A. The subjunctive is the thought-mode as distinguished from the indicative, which is the fact-mode.

B. The subjunctive always expresses some uncertainty or doubt or disbelief — a supposition, wish, or condition.

C. Usually the subjunctive forms, *had*, *may*, *should*, or *would*, are preceded by *if*.

D. The subjunctive forms, with the exception of the verb *to be*, are the same as those of the indicative with this exception: In the subjunctive second and third persons singular there are no personal endings. Cf. the conjugations.

E. The verb *to be* has distinct forms for the present and past tenses, subjunctive. The present tense is *be*, and the past tense is *were*.

F. *If* is used with the subjunctive to express a *contrary-to-fact condition*. *If* may be used with the indicative when the idea to be expressed is a possibility.

G. There are no future and future perfect tenses in

the subjunctive. The present tense subjunctive sometimes represents future time. The past tense subjunctive sometimes represents *present* time.

H. The auxiliary verbs *may*, *had*, *should*, and *would* sometimes are used to form subjunctive mode-forms. The student, however, should be cautioned concerning the distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive uses of these auxiliaries. *When the meaning clearly is a statement of fact, the mode in which they are used is the indicative.*

NOTE. The student should understand that the term *verb-phrase* means nothing more than the combination of auxiliary and main-verb forms necessary to form the compound tense-forms, such as the *potential*, *progressive*, *emphatic*, present tense-forms.

138. Addenda to Rules 118-123, Matters of Tense.

A. The *present tense* should be used to indicate action, being, or state of being that remains permanently true.

Wrong: He said that Thanksgiving Day was a national holiday.

Right: He said that Thanksgiving Day is a national holiday.

Wrong: I have always been told that London was the largest city in the world today.

Right: I have always been told that London is the largest city in the world today.

B. In the construction of sentence ideas one should understand that *shall* and *should* are the present indicative and the past indicative forms of the same verb

shall just as *will* and *would* are of the same verb *will*. Cf. *shall* and *will* in Webster's Dictionary.

Right: I shall go when you return.

Right: I should like to go when you return.

Right: I will do your work if you will allow me.

Right: I would do your work if you would allow me.

NOTE. *Shall* (Anglo-Saxon *scal*, *sceal*) means *am to*. *Will* (Anglo-Saxon *willa*, *will*) means *wish to* or *desire to*.

Thus it may be seen that *shall* is used with the first person singular and plural, while *will* is used with the second and third persons, both singular and plural, for expressing simple expectation or futurity.

Right: I shall (am to) go.

Right: You will (desire to) go.

Right: You will (wish to) go.

Right: He will (desire to) go.

Right: He will (wish to) go.

Similarly it may be seen that the reversal of the order of *shall* and *will* for simple expectation will result in determination, in which *will* is used with the first person singular and plural, while *shall* is used with the second and third persons, both singular and plural.

Right: I will (desire to) (am determined to) go.

Right: I will (wish to) (am determined to) go.

Right: You shall (are expected to) (will be required to) go.

Right: He shall (is expected to) (will be required to) go.

C. In asking a question in which the subject is in the first person, use *shall* or *should* unless the question is the repetition of one that is addressed to the speaker.

Right: Where shall we go now?

Right: What shall I do?

Right: What should I do now?

Right: (If the question put to the speaker were: *Will you answer my question now?* the correct repetition of the question by the speaker will be:

Will I answer your question now? for his answer would be:
I will answer your question now or *I will not*.

D. In asking a question in which the subject is the second or third person, use the form *shall* or *will* or *should* or *would* that will be required in the answer.

Right: (Question) Will you go?

(Answer) I will.

Right: (Question) Will he be allowed to go?

(Answer) He will (be allowed to go).

(Question) Shall he be held responsible?

(Answer) He shall (be held responsible).

(Question) Will you attend to the problem at once?

(Answer) I will (attend to the problem at once).

(Question) Shall you be permitted to attend?

(Answer) I shall (be permitted to attend, I expect).

E. If a sentence contains an indirect quotation, *shall* (*should*) or *will* (*would*) will be used exactly as it would be used if the quotation were a direct one.

Right: I replied that I thought he would work. (The direct quotation would be: *I think that he will work*.)

Right: It was believed that he should be held responsible. (The direct quotation would be: *He should be held responsible*.)

F. If a dependent clause makes a statement that is conditional, the auxiliary *shall* (*should*) regularly may be used with all three persons.

Right: If he *should* be told that, he would hate you.

Right: If I *should* be appointed, I would accept.

Right: If you *should* be told, would you repeat the statement?

Right: Would we go *should* we be appointed?

Right: They who *should* listen to false rumors *should* keep their silence.

G. *Past time is not all one time.* The past tense, the present perfect tense, and the past perfect tense represent three distinctly different *times*. The *past tense* may be taken to represent the particular time of a happening; the *present perfect tense*, to represent time subsequent to that of the past tense and continuing down to the present period of time; and the *past perfect tense*, to represent time that is (or was) before that represented by the past tense.

Because *past time* has three distinctly different shades of meaning, the proper *sequence of tense* (time) is very important.

H. If a general rule can be made to guide the student in the proper sequence of verb-forms, it will be similar to this statement: The *verb-form* in the dependent sentence element ordinarily should not indicate action, being, or state of being prior to that of the governing verb. Cf. note, following.

Wrong: I would not have gone if I had known that you would have objected.

Right: I would not have gone if I had known that you *would object*.

Wrong: It was his plan to have gone.

Right: It was his plan *to go*.

Wrong: It is the oldest college in North America, being founded in 1636.

Right: It is the oldest college in North America, *having been founded* in 1636.

NOTE. Here the rule may be stated: *When the governing verb is in the present tense and indicates a continuing action or state of being, the verb-form in the dependent sentence element can not be in the present tense also if the time to be represented is that of the past.*

The proper sequence of tenses can be maintained by the student who will study the conjugations of the auxiliary verbs, the intransitive verbs, and the transitive verbs. Both finite and infinite forms must be understood. The time-element in the verb-forms is very clear-cut if one will study the forms.

PRONOUNS

139. The personal pronouns, *I, you, they*, and their case forms, can not be used indefinitely. Their antecedent must be understood definitely or definitely expressed.

Wrong: You should turn to the right when you meet a car.

Right: One should turn to the right when one meets a car.

Right: One should turn to the right when he meets a car.

Right: John, you should turn to the right when you meet a car.

Wrong: They make the finest period-furniture in High Point, North Carolina.

Right: The manufacturers make the finest period-furniture in High Point, North Carolina.

140. The indefinite *one* (*an adjective by nature and*

either an adjective or a pronominal adjective by function) should be used when no particular person is intended or identified. Cf. rule 166.

Right: One person's loss is another person's gain.

Right: One's loss is another's gain.

EXCEPTION: The editorial use of *we* is permitted in newspaper style, when the editor speaks presumably for the entire staff.

141. Such indefinites as *any*, *anybody*, *anything*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *every one*, *everybody*, *one*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *somebody*, *some one*, *something*, *a person*, and the like always accord with a singular antecedent and with a singular predicate, and in turn are followed by a singular pronoun for which they serve as antecedents.

NOTE. Combined forms like *any one*, *some one*, etc., in which two vowels not forming a diphthong would be brought together if the two words were written as one, may be written as two separate words for the sake of clarity. Combined forms like *anybody*, *somebody*, etc., are written as one word. The dictionary distinguishes between the functions of some of these words — when they are written as one word, and when they are written as two words. Cf. *anyone* in *Webster's Dictionary*.

Right: Each boy has his book. (Singular.)

Right: Neither girl comes to her class on time. (Singular.)

Right: A person does his best work when he is properly motivated. (Singular.)

Right: All (everything) is ready if all who are going are here.

142. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, but not necessarily in

case; for the case of a relative pronoun depends upon, or is determined by, the use of the pronoun in the dependent relative adjective clause.

Right: The student *who* called had left his key. (Nominative case subject of *called*.)

Right: I could not recognize the boy *whom* you stopped. (Objective case object of the verb *stopped*.)

Right: It is I *who* am to blame. (Who has the antecedent *I* and is therefore first person singular. It is nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *am*.)

Right: Give it to the one *who* needs it. (Who has the antecedent *one* and is therefore third person singular. *Who* is in the nominative case as the subject of the verb *needs*. Its antecedent *one* is in the objective case as the object of the preposition *to*.)

Right: He *who* arrives first will receive his books first. (*Who* has the antecedent *he* and is therefore third person singular. It is in the nominative case as the subject of the verb *arrives*.)

Right: I do not like a dog *which* barks at cars. (*Which* has the antecedent *dog* and is therefore the third person singular. It is the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *barks*. It represents a lower form of animal life and is therefore not *who* and not *that*, but *which*. Cf. note to this rule, below.)

Right: I have lost the book *that* was given to me. (*That* is nominative case as the subject of the verb *was given*, in the passive voice. It represents an inanimate object and is therefore not *who* or *which*.)

NOTE. Good usage distinguishes between the uses of the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* in the following manner: *Who*, *whose*, *whom* as the inflected forms of the pronoun

who represent human beings. *Which, whose, which* represent lower forms of animal life. *That, —, that* represent inanimate objects. The careless use of *that* for human beings results in inconsistency when the possessive case is required, for there is no possessive case of *that*. Therefore one is forced to resort to the possessive case of *who* or *which*.

The antecedent of *who, which, or that*, or of the relative pronoun *as*, when *as* is preceded by *same* or *such*, must be expressed or definitely understood. These are the *simple relatives*. The *compound relatives* are the combinations of the simple relatives *who, which*, and their case forms with the suffix *ever* or *soever*, and have their antecedent implied in the construction itself.

Right: Whoever wills may go. (He *whoever* wills may go.)

Right: Whoever will may go. (They *whoever* will may go.)

The double relative *what* is the equivalent of itself and its own antecedent.

Right: I am uncertain as to *what* I should do. (I am uncertain as to *that which* I should do.) (The interrogative *what* is another word.)

143. The use of a plural relative pronoun requires the use of a plural predicate. Cf. rule 118.

Right: He is one of those *students who* are always eager to do *their* part. (*Who* has the antecedent *students* and therefore requires a plural predicate and a plural pronoun to follow.)

Right: He is *one who* is always eager to do *his* part. (The student should recognize that this sentence is correct but that it is not the same sentence or the same meaning as the preceding illustrations.)

144. The use of the indefinite *one* preferably should

be followed by *one's* or *one*, in reference to the original *one*.

Right: If one has one's driver's license, one should have no trouble.

NOTE. Good usage, however, permits the indefinite *one* to be followed by a personal pronoun referring to it, and designating its gender.

Right: One should attend to her own business.

Right: One should attend to his own business.

Right: When one knows that he can profit by the experience, he should not hesitate.

145. The self-pronouns — *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *themselves*, *herself*, or the like — can not be used except as intensive or reflexive modifiers of an expressed personal pronoun. They can not be used to take the place of a nominative or of an objective case form, like *I* or *me*, or *he* or *him*, or *they* or *them*, except as reflexive objects.

Wrong: John and myself are going.

Right: John and I are going.

Right: John and I myself are going.

Right: John gave the set of records himself.

Right: I saw myself in the still waters of the pool.

Right: The leaders themselves are responsible.

Right: I am trusting the leaders themselves.

146. The objective case of the pronoun should be used as the subject of the infinitive whether the *to* (the so-called sign of the infinitive) is expressed or understood. Every infinitive has its subject in the

objective case. Cf. addenda to rules 118-123, number 9. Also, *infinitive* in Webster's Dictionary.

Right: The committee asked *us to give* our reports.

Right: Let's go with them. (Let *us [to]* go with them.)

Right: Let *John and me* go with you. (Let *John and me [to]* go with you.)

Right: John, let's go with them. (John, let *us, you and me, [to]* go with them.)

Right: I could hear *her bum* to herself. (I could hear *her [to] bum* to herself.)

Wrong: I thought *he to be she*.

Right: I thought *him to be her*.

Wrong: The students thought *I to be he*.

Right: The students thought *me to be him*.

Wrong: They mistook *we to be they*.

Right: They mistook *us to be them*.

NOTE. The subject of an infinitive and the predicate substantive completing the infinite form of the verb are in the objective case.

147. The indefinite use of *it*, *they*, or *this* always is incorrect. The loose, vague, or indefinite reference that results from the careless use of these indefinites should be avoided in careful or exacting speech or writing. Such an error of reference may be corrected by the substitution of the noun for which the indefinite *it*, *they*, *this*, or *these* is supposed to stand.

Wrong: They speak Italian in Italy.

Right: The people of Italy speak Italian.

Right: Italian is spoken in Italy.

Wrong: They sell newspapers on the corner.

Right: Street boys sell newspapers on the corner.

Wrong: This is considered confidential.

Right: This fact is considered confidential.

Wrong: These should not be accepted.

Right: These facts should not be accepted.

NOTE 1. Frequently an error of this kind may be corrected by one's changing the verb from the active to the passive voice in which the original object becomes the subject and is acted upon.

Wrong: They make furniture at Grand Rapids.

Right: Furniture is made at Grand Rapids.

NOTE 2. In certain expressions where no definite subject is thought of, *it* is correctly used in an impersonal way as the subject. In such a use the subject *it* denotes no person or thing. Thus it is said to be impersonal. Examples of such a construction are:

It rains.

It seems impossible.

It appears to be untrue.

It becomes more doubtful.

It is snowing.

148. Frequently the indefinite reference of a pronoun may be corrected by one's changing the entire sentence to direct discourse.

Wrong: John's father told him that he could not go to the game. (Indefinite reference.)

Right: John's father said, "John, you can't go to the game." John's father said, "John, I can't go to the game." (Correct reference in each instance.)

NOTE 1. In the consideration of pronouns the student should remember that it is awkward to attribute possession to inanimate objects, for inanimate objects can not possess

or own anything. For this reason the language has the prepositional *of-phrase* construction with which to express such ideas of *possession* or *ownership*.

Wrong: The house's top; the roof's decay; the street's end.

Right: The top of the house; the decay of the roof; the end of the street.

EXCEPTIONS: Certain expressions are accepted in good usage, such as the following:

Right: A moment's notice; a day's notice; a week's time; a year's duration.

NOTE 2. It is incorrect to attribute possession to the object of an act, for the object of an act does not own or possess the act. Here again the prepositional *of-phrase* should be used.

Wrong: Lincoln's assassination; the prisoner's execution.

Right: The assassination of Lincoln; the execution of the prisoner.

NOTE 3. In addition to the indefinite and the impersonal uses of *it* there is the expletive use. This expletive or *filling-out* use is one in which *it* has no meaning. Cf. the expletive use of *there*. Examples of the expletive use of *it* are:

It is uncertain that I shall go.

It is true that the earth is round.

In such sentences the real subject-idea is in the position of the predicate nominative. In the two illustrations given here the real subjects follow after the predicate adjectives *uncertain* and *true*.

ADDENDA TO PRONOUNS, RULES 139-148

149. The Declension of Pronouns:

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

A. FIRST PERSONAL PRONOUN

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we
<i>Poss.</i>	my or mine	our or ours
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us

B. SECOND PERSONAL PRONOUN

<i>Nom.</i>	you	you
<i>Poss.</i>	your or yours	your or yours
<i>Obj.</i>	you	you

C. THIRD PERSONAL PRONOUN

<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Poss.</i>	his	her or hers	its	their or theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	him	her	it	them

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

D. SIMPLE RELATIVES

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	who	who
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose
<i>Obj.</i>	whom	whom
<i>Nom.</i>	which	which
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose
<i>Obj.</i>	which	which
<i>Nom.</i>	that	that
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	that	that

<i>Nom.</i>	as	as
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	as	as

E. DOUBLE RELATIVE

<i>Nom.</i>	what	what
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	what	what

F. COMPOUND RELATIVES

<i>Nom.</i>	whoever or (whosoever)	whoever or (whosoever)
<i>Poss.</i>	whosever or (whosoesoever)	whosever or (whosoesoever)
<i>Obj.</i>	whomever or (whomsoever)	whomever or (whomsoever)
<i>Nom.</i>	whichever or (whichsoever)	whichever or (whichsoever)
<i>Poss.</i>	whosever or (whosoesoever)	whosever or (whosoesoever)
<i>Obj.</i>	whichever or (whichsoever)	whichever or (whichsoever)

G. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

<i>Nom.</i>	who	who
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose
<i>Obj.</i>	whom	whom
<i>Nom.</i>	which	which
<i>Poss.</i>	whose	whose
<i>Obj.</i>	which	which
<i>Nom.</i>	what	what
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	what	what

H. SELF-PRONOUNS

FIRST PERSONAL

<i>Nom.</i>	myself	ourselves
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	myself	ourselves

SECOND PERSONAL

<i>Nom.</i>	yourself	yourselves
<i>Poss.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	yourself	yourselves

THIRD PERSONAL

Nom.	himself	herself	itself	themselves
Poss.
Obj.	himself	herself	itself	themselves

150. Matters of Pronominal Usage:

A. The terms *indefinite* and *demonstrative* should not be applied to pronouns but to adjectives, for the so-called indefinite and demonstrative pronouns are adjectives by nature, and adjectives or pronominal uses of adjectives by function.

Right: I bought *this* suit last fall. (Demonstrative adjective modifying the noun *suit*.)

Right: I bought *this* last fall. (Demonstrative adjective functioning pronominally to take the place of the noun *suit* that it is understood to modify.)

Right: He employed *these* men but dismissed *those* men. (*These* and *those* are demonstrative adjectives modifying the nouns *men*.)

Right: He employed *these* but dismissed *those*. (*These* and *those* are demonstrative adjectives functioning pronominally to take the place of the nouns *men* that they are understood to modify.)

Right: *Each* told the *other*. (Indefinite adjectives *each* and *other* functioning pronominally to take the place of the nouns that they are understood to modify. That is, *Each person told the other person*.)

Right: *Four* men rode to the *fourteenth* floor. (The numerical adjective *four* modifies the noun *men*, while the adjective *fourteenth* modifies the noun *floor*. *Four* is a cardinal numeral, while *fourteenth* is ordinal, but both function as adjectives in the attributive position.)

Right: *Four* rode to the *fourteenth*. (The numerical adjec-

tives *four* and *fourteenth* function pronominally in this sentence, taking the place of the nouns *men* and *floor* that they are understood to modify.)

NOTE. Demonstrative, indefinite, and numerical adjectives are adjectives by nature but may function as adjectives or as pronominal uses of those adjectives.

B. Preferably use *who*, *whose*, *whom* for human beings; *which*, *whose*, *which* for lower forms of animal life; and *that*, —, *that* for inanimate objects.

C. The self-pronouns are to be used only as intensive or reflexive modifiers of expressed forms of the personal pronouns.

The self-pronouns sometimes appear in the form of the possessive case (*myself*, *yourself*) but never function as a possessive. They function only as appositives of the nominative or the objective case, or as a reflexive in the objective case.

D. The relative pronouns are in three classifications: the *simple* relative with its antecedent expressed or definitely understood; the *compound* relative with its antecedent implied; and the *double* relative *what* with its antecedent included in its meaning, *that which*.

E. The indefinite use of *it* is always incorrect; the impersonal use of *it* is correct in some instances; and the expletive use of *it* serves to fill out for the real subject that follows after the predicate. The three functions of the pronoun *it* should be distinguished.

F. The indefinite reference of the demonstrative adjectives *this*, *these*, *those* functioning as pronominal adjectives should be avoided in careful speech or writing.

G. The demonstrative pronominal adjectives *this*, *these*, *those* should not be confused in use with the pronoun *them*.

H. The possessive case *its* of the third personal pronoun neuter gender should not be confused with the form *it's* which means *it is*.

I. The possessive cases of the personal pronouns are not formed with the use of an apostrophe.

In the declension of the indefinite *one*, the 's is necessary to distinguish the possessive case singular, while the s' is necessary to distinguish the plural possessive.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom.</i> one	ones
<i>Poss.</i> one's	ones'
<i>Obj.</i> one	ones

J. The introductory or opening sentence of a paragraph should not contain a pronoun that refers to an antecedent in a preceding paragraph, for clearer reference results when the reference of every pronoun or pronominal adjective is definitely assured. This assurance is more likely to result from the presence of the antecedent in the same paragraph with the pronoun referring to it. It is indeed a bad practice to assume that the reader will find the antecedent just because the writer has no doubt as to what it is.

MODIFICATION

151. Words, phrases, and clauses should be placed as close as possible to the word that they modify; else, they will seem to modify the word next to which they are placed.

Wrong: The wind began just as we reached the shore with great violence.

Right: Just as we reached the shore, the wind began with great violence.

Wrong: I have seen players on the asphalt tennis courts with no shirts on.

Right: I have seen players with no shirts exercising on the asphalt tennis courts.

Wrong: The player dropped the bat when the umpire called the last pitch a ball and ran.

Better: The player dropped the bat and ran when the umpire called the last pitch a ball.

152. If the word following the finite form of an intransitive verb (the intransitive copula verbs) indicates a quality of the subject, it should be an adjective. Cf. rule 124 G. Also, rule 153.

Right: The roses smell sweet. (Condition of roses, not a manner of smelling.)

Right: I feel bad. (I feel *well*, *good*, or *ill* indicating a condition of me.)

Right: The building stands steady. (Unshaken.)

Prompted by the use of adjectives, the student may consider the following three notes:

NOTE 1. Such a construction as *millions of dollars* contains

the noun *millions*, whereas *five million dollars* contains the adjective *million*.

NOTE 2. In the adjectival use of words that might be *adjectives* or *nouns* insofar as their form or appearance is concerned, the student should be very careful to use the *singular form* of the word if it is to function as an adjective. Examples of this construction are (Cf. rule 56):

Wrong: Freshmen English.

Right: Freshman English.

Wrong: Women's College. (Not to be used in designating a special school.)

Right: Woman's College.

Wrong: Women's Club.

Right: Woman's Club.

Wrong: Yeomen service.

Right: Yeoman service.

NOTE 3. In the consideration of rule 152 the student must keep in mind the grammatical meaning of a word before regarding it as an adjective.

153. If the word following the finite form of an intransitive verb (with the possible exception of copula verbs) indicates a manner of action, the word should be an adverb. (Cf. rule 152.)

Right: The bell sounds sweetly in the clear morning air. (Indicating the manner of gentle ringing of the bell.)

Right: I feel badly. (Indicating a poor sense of touch, not a degree of ill health or physical condition. Many educated people misuse *badly* in the latter sense thinking that they are correct.)

Right: The building stands *steadily*. (Continuously.)

Right: He drove *carefully*. (Adverb.)

Right: Drive *fast*. (Adverb.)

Right: Drive *slowly*. (Adverb.)

NOTE. The student should realize that the *ly* ending does not of itself indicate that a word is an adverb. Cf. the words *lovely*, *kindly*, etc., which usually are adjectives. Also, many words that look like adjectives are adverbs or adjectives according to their use. As examples:

Right: They arrived *safe* and *sound*. (Adjectives.)

Right: I had a *lovely* time. (Adjective.)

Right: I noticed that she had a *lovely* disposition. (Adjective.)

Right: "Lead *kindly* light." (Adjective.)

Right: It is a *slow* train. (Adjective.)

Right: It is a *fast* train. (Adjective.)

Right: He acted *kindly*. (Adverb, manner of acting.)

Right: He drove *fast*, but I observed the traffic law and drove *slowly*. (Adverbs of manner.)

154. Adverbial clauses of time, place, and cause (*is when*, *is where*, and *is because* clauses) should not be misused for indirect questions, noun clauses, or relative adjective clauses, and should not be placed incorrectly in the position of a predicate nominative. A common mistake that students should guard against is the misuse of adverbial clauses of time, place, or cause for a *that* clause used as a predicate nominative.

Wrong: The reason why I am late is *because I did not hear the bell*. (This is an incorrect use of the adverbial clause of cause, for the predicate nominative is *that I did not hear the bell*.)

Right: The reason why I am late is *that I did not hear the bell*. (Correct use of the noun clause as predicate nominative.)

NOTE 1. The subordinating conjunction *that* should be expressed, for its omission may make the meaning of the dependent clause not immediately clear. The omission of the connective *that*, or its equivalent, serves no worthy purpose but may become misleading since such a connective does have a distinct subordinating function to perform.

NOTE 2. The relative pronoun should not be omitted in a sentence, for the meaning of the pronoun has to be understood even though the pronoun has been left out. Such relative pronouns have a double function, and when they are left to be understood, some necessary construction is left incomplete. The pronoun functions both as a subordinating conjunction, to connect, and also as a substantive within its own clause — subject, object, or possessive case. The omission of the pronoun leaves some verb, preposition, infinitive, or participle without its subject or object; or some substantive without its modifier, as the case of the pronoun may be.

Vague: He is the man I saw.

Better: He is the man whom I saw.

If *whom* is not expressed in this sentence, the transitive verb *saw* has no expressed object; and the relative adjective clause *I saw* has no connection with the word *man* in the main statement. The student has nothing to lose by being careful to express his subordinating conjunctions and relative pronouns.

Right: The reason why I am late is the fact *that I did not bear the bell*. (This is a correct use of the noun clause as an appositive of the noun *fact*.)

Right: The reason why I am late is my failure *to bear the bell*. (This is equally correct as a construction in which the infinitive and its object, *to bear the bell*, are an appositive of the noun *failure*.)

Right: The reason why I am late is *my failing to bear the bell*. (This is equally correct as a construction in which the gerund *failing* and its object, the infinitive *to bear the bell*, function as the complete predicate nominative.)

NOTE 3. It is better for the word *that* not to be used to introduce relative adjective clauses modifying the noun *time*. The noun *time* in such clauses should be modified by a relative adjective clause that is introduced by the relative adverb *when*, the equivalent of *at which*, *during which*, *in which*, etc. This use of the relative adverb is the equivalent of a preposition and a relative pronoun. Cf. the following examples:

Wrong: This is the time *that* I came. (Here the word *that* is incorrect because it can not function as an adverb of time and modify the verb *came*. It should be a word of two functions: the one, an adverb of time; the other, the conjunctive function connecting the clause of time to the main statement.)

Right: This is the time *when* I came. (Here the word *when* is correct because it is a relative adverb, and, as the student may understand, is the equivalent of the preposition *at* and the relative pronoun *which*.)

155. Clauses of Time:

Wrong: Twelve o'clock is *when the whistle blows*. (This is an incorrect use of the adverbial clause of time as a predicate nominative.)

Right: Twelve o'clock is the time *when the whistle blows*. (This is a correct use of a relative adjective clause, introduced by the relative adverb *when*, the equivalent of a preposition, *at*, and a relative pronoun, *which*, modifying the predicate nominative *time*.)

156. Clauses of Place:

Wrong: The study hall is *where the class is to be held*. (This is an incorrect use of an adverbial clause of place as predicate nominative.)

Right: The study hall is the room *where the class is to be held*. (This is a correct use of a relative adjective clause introduced by the relative adverb *where*, the equivalent of the preposition *in* and the relative pronoun *which*, modifying the predicate nominative *room*. Adverbs or adverbial clauses do not take the place of nouns.) Cf. the use of the article *a* in the *right* illustration of *time* (*parenthesized explanation*) with the article *the* in this illustration. In the *time* illustration the preposition *at* might be the preposition *during*, *on*, etc. Thus the indefinite article *a* and the commas before and after *at* are correct.

156 A. The expression *due to* is composed of the adjective *due* followed by the preposition *to* governing the construction that may follow. *Due to* should not be misused as a substitute for the preposition *because of*. The word *due* functions as a predicate adjective and is modified by the prepositional phrase that is introduced by the preposition *to*. Sometimes *due to* is the equivalent of *caused by*.

Wrong: I can not go *due to* lack of permission.

Right: I can not go *because of* lack of permission.

Right: My failure is *due to* my carelessness.

Right: The accident was *due to* faulty preparation.

157. A participle or a participial phrase must be placed so that it will be connected unmistakably with the word that it should modify, for otherwise it wrongly will modify the word next to which it is placed.

Wrong: *Hanging on the fence* I saw the clothes. (Here the participle *hanging* and its modifier *on the fence* wrongly modify the pronoun *I*. The insertion of a comma after *fence* might make the reference or modification clear to the eye but not to the ear.)

Right: I saw the clothes *hanging on the fence*. (The participle construction here correctly modifies the word *clothes*.)

Wrong: *Turning the corner* the bus was seen waiting at the station. (This is an incorrect placement of the modifier *turning the corner*, for the word *bus* wrongly is modified.)

Right: We, turning the corner, saw the bus waiting at the station. (Correct modification of *we* in a nonrestrictive or parenthetical use of *turning the corner*.)

Right: We turning the corner saw the bus waiting at the station. (Correct modification of *we* in a restrictive use of *turning the corner*.)

Right: We saw the bus turning the corner. (Correct modification of *bus* in a restrictive use of *turning the corner*.)

158. A gerund phrase must be placed so that it will be connected unmistakably with the word that it should modify, for otherwise it will seem to modify the word next to which it is placed.

Wrong: *Upon entering the house* the butler took my hat and coat. (This prepositional phrase, in which the gerund *entering* and its object *the house* function as the object of the preposition *upon*, incorrectly modifies *butler*.)

Right: *Upon my entering the house* the butler took my hat and coat. (The prepositional-gerund-phrase construction here is a correct placement of the modifier *upon my entering the house*. Also, the possessive case *my* correctly modifies and identifies the gerund *entering*.)

NOTE. The substantive modifying a gerund must be in

the possessive case, for otherwise the gerund and the participle will be confused in use, and a mistaken meaning will be the result.

Wrong: I was undecided about *you* going. (I was not undecided about *you*, but I was undecided about the going — *your* going. The construction in this illustration is wrongly the participle *going*.)

Correct: I was undecided about *your* going. (In this correct illustration the possessive case *your* immediately identifies the gerund *going*.)

159. An infinitive should not be left *dangling* with its subject neither expressed nor rightly understood.

Wrong: *To see the man* an appointment was made. (In this illustration the incorrect omission of the subject of the infinitive *to see* causes the noun appointment to become the subject of *to see*.)

Right: An appointment was made for *me* to see the man (for *one*, for *you*, for *them*, or for *him* to see the man). (The pronoun in the objective case becomes the expressed subject of the infinitive *to see*; cf. rule 146.)

Right: For *me* to see the man it was necessary that I make an appointment.

160. Such adverbs as *only*, *almost*, *ever*, *nearly*, and the like should be placed so as to modify the word intended to be modified.

Examples:

1. I only want one. (Incorrect if *I want only one* is intended.)

2. Do you ever expect to go? (Incorrect if *Do you expect ever to go?* is intended.)

3. She is the prettiest girl whom I almost ever saw.

(Incorrect if *She is almost the prettiest girl whom I ever saw* is intended.)

4. I only saw him. (Incorrect if *I saw only him* is intended.)

5. Only I saw him. (Incorrect if *I saw only him* is intended.)

6. I have not studied but one lesson. (Incorrect formation of a double negative since *but* means the adverb *only* and the entire sentence is intended to mean *I have studied but [only] one lesson.*)

NOTE. The word *but* is an adverb in this use. The added adverb *not* ruins the meaning, however, and destroys the effectiveness of the placement of *but* as a modifier of the adjective *one*. The double negative faultily results.

161. An adverbial clause should be placed so as to modify only the word intended to be modified.

Wrong: Mary saw her mother as she went into the store. (This sentence is misleading since it is impossible for one to know definitely whether the adverbial clause of time *as she went into the store* means *Mary saw as she went* or *as her mother went.*)

Right: As Mary went into the store, she saw her mother. (Other constructions are correct also, but they will not be adverbial clauses. For example: *Going into the store Mary saw her mother.* Also: *Mary saw her mother going into the store.*)

162. The infinitive should not be split by the insertion of an adverb or other modifier placed between *to*, the so-called sign of the infinitive, and the *present indicative* or the *past participle* form completing the infinitive. Originally the infinitive form was more of

a unit and *to* was not regarded as its sign but as a kind of prefix of the infinitive. Good usage sometimes permits the split infinitive construction for the sake of euphony or smooth reading. Cf. the following examples:

“Teach us *so* to number our days”

“Teach us to *so* number our days”

“Teach us to number our days *so*”

Wrong: I want to quickly go.

Right: I want to go quickly.

NOTE 1. Similar in a sense to the split infinitive is the split-verb-form (the so-called verb-phrase) in which an adverb or adverbial modifier has been slipped between the auxiliary verb-form and the main verb-form. This construction can not be condemned wholly, but it is to be condemned to a great degree. If the student finds that there is no other place where the adverbial modifier of such a verb-form may be placed to give the meaning intended, then he must split the verb-form for the sake of the desired meaning. This split-placement, however, should be judged almost wholly on the basis of euphony if there is any doubt of the best position. The example:

An infinitive should never be left dangling might just as well be written:

An infinitive never should be left dangling unless there is some distinctly euphonious improvement in the former sentence. The student, doubtless, has accustomed his ear to certain habits of sound-patterns, and his constructions to certain twists of formation, but these do not justify his splitting verb-forms with adverbial modifiers. He must have a better reason, or else he must not split the forms.

After all else has been said, it may be added that frequently such a split construction is highly misleading. For example:

One should while he counts seventy know that it is difficult to hold his breath. Cf. *One should know that it is difficult to hold his breath while he counts seventy.*

NOTE 2. The adverb *not* necessarily is an exception here, as in the construction *can not* or *cannot* in *can not go*; or in *shall not go*; etc. Nevertheless, the adverb *not* must not split an infinitive.

NOTE 3. The so-called sign of the infinitive, *to*, should not be omitted if there is any chance of its omission causing the infinitive to be mistaken for a finite verb-form, such as the past tense indicative. Cf. rule 168.

Wrong: Many instructors require the class to investigate additional source material and read many illustrative examples. (The word *read* in this sentence might be taken to be the past tense indicative instead of the present active infinitive of the verb *read*, *read*, *read* unless the sign of the infinitive, *to*, is expressed. Here *read* seems to be parallel to the verb *required*, when in reality it is supposed to be parallel to the infinitive *to investigate*.)

Right: The instructor required the class *to investigate* additional source material and *to read* many illustrative examples.

ADDENDA TO RULES 151-162 ON MODIFICATION

Kinds of Modifiers

163. The Six Adjectival Modifiers:

A. The simple adjective, descriptive or definitive, in any one of its three positions:

—: the *attributive*,

The kind old man in the big black car is highly esteemed.

—: the *appositive*,

America's eastern boundary, *expansive and unprotected*,
is her first aid in defense.

—: the *predicate*,

You are *considerate* of others.

B. The prepositional phrase modifying a noun or pronoun:

The announcement *in the catalogue* is of interest to every student.

I spoke to the advertising manager *of the radio station*.

C. The participial phrase:

The horse *becoming frightened* ran wildly down the road.

The rain *ceasing* in its downpour gradually became only a slight drizzle.

The state trooper, *having settled the dispute*, rode away.

D. The possessive case of a noun or pronoun used as a modifier of another noun or pronoun:

My hat blew off in the *governor's* mansion-yard.

One's duty should prompt *his* every action.

Chief Justice *Marshall's* decisions are relied upon as decisions that have set precedents.

E. The appositive, an adjectival modifier of the word with which it is in apposition:

I, *John Jones*, do solemnly swear to support the laws of the United States.

I visited Washington, D.C., the *capital* of the United States.

In remembering the instructions, *that honest dealings*

always promote trust, the governor maintained a respected administration.

The phrase *education for leadership* has been abused.

F. 1. The relative adjective clause, introduced by the relative pronoun: Cf. rules 142, 143, and Addenda to Pronouns, 149-150.

I trust those men *whom I have found to be honest*.

America is a country *of which every citizen should be proud*.

It is he *whose paper was read before the class*.

F. 2. The relative adjective clause, introduced by the relative adverb, when the relative adverb is the equivalent of a preposition and a relative pronoun.

This is the place *where the bus will stop*.

I have told you the time *when you are to be expected*.

Do you know the reason *why the members of the jury disagreed?*

164. The Four Adverbial Modifiers:

A. The simple adverb of time, place, manner, or degree Cf. D, rule 164.

Come *here* at once!

The Pan-American Clipper should be *here now*, for it is *so very infrequently* late.

B. The prepositional phrase used as a modifier of a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

She replied quite *at random*.

I stood *on the pier* and watched the ship.

The machine is excellent *for some purposes*.

The ambulance raced madly *along the highway*.

I was sure *of its being bim*.

Striving *in accordance with his firm will to succeed*, he looked forward *to every opportunity* to better himself.

C. The adverbial objective (accusative), a noun in the objective case indicating time, place, manner, or degree.

I waited five *minutes* while the inspector examined ten *yards* of the track.

In an effort to make-up the lost time, the engineer drove the remaining fifty *miles* at breakneck speed.

Although you are *years* younger than I, you are *ages* older through experience.

D. The nine adverbial clauses:

Time, place, manner, and degree are introduced by the conjunctive use of the adverb:

NOTE 1. The student should distinguish between *interrogative, relative, and conjunctive* adverbs. As an example, the interrogative *when* introduces an indirect question (a substantive clause), the relative *when* introduces an adjective clause, and the conjunctive *when* introduces an adverbial clause. Surely this distinction leads to a clearer interpretation of such a clause.

It rained *when the commencement academic procession began to march*.

The monument stands *where the battle was fought*.

The horse ran *as if he had been drugged*.

Understanding is more lastingly powerful *than is force*.

Cause, condition, concession, purpose, and result are introduced by subordinating conjunctions:

The walls cracked *because the foundation was poor*.

If I were you, I would speak with authority.

Although one may appear defeated, he is never wholly whipped until he gives up.

In order that one may become successful, one must prepare well.

You speak so forcefully that you always convince your hearers.

NOTE 2. The student should know the following subordinating words that are used to introduce the adverbial clauses, but he should know them by their function and not by simple memorization:

The principal conjunctive adverbs are:

1. TIME: *after, as, as soon as, before, now that, since, then, till, until, when, whenever, while.*
2. PLACE: *whence, where, wherever, whither.*
3. MANNER: *as, as if, as though.*
4. DEGREE: *as, than.*

The principal subordinating conjunctions are:

5. CAUSE: *as, because, for, inasmuch as, in that, now that, seeing that, since.*
6. CONDITION: *but that, if, in case that, let, on condition that, provided, providing, so, so that, suppose, unless (if not), wherever (if ever).*
7. CONCESSION: *albeit, although, even if (though), if, however, no matter how, notwithstanding, though.*
8. PURPOSE: *in order that, lest, so that, that.*
9. RESULT: *but that, so that, that.*

PARALLEL CONSTRUCTION

The general rule is that words, phrases, or clauses that are parallel in thought must be parallel in construction.

165. Avoid a needless shift from the active to the passive voice. When there is the right of choice, the active voice is to be preferred. Cf., however, rule 147 note 1.

Wrong: I bought a ticket, and the train was quickly boarded.

Right: I bought a ticket and quickly boarded the train.

Wrong: The car was then stopped, and I got out.

Right: I stopped the car and then got out.

NOTE. The word *got* means to receive or obtain. Its principal parts are *get, got, got*, but never *gotten*. Cf. *Webster's Dictionary*.

166. Avoid a needless shift from the *first, second, or third* person to a different person, such as from *I* to *he*, or to *a person*, or to *one*, or even to *you*; or from *I* to *we*. Cf. rules 139-141.

Wrong: One should remember to turn to the right when you drive on the highway.

Right: One should remember to turn to the right when one drives on the highway.

Permissible: I would leave, but then one hates to seem hurried.

Better: I would leave, but I hate to seem hurried.

167. Avoid creating a confusing point of view such as results from the failure to give parallel ideas a parallel construction. Cf. note.

Wrong: They showed kindness *in clothing* the child and *to give* it good food.

Right: They showed kindness *in clothing* the child and *in giving* it good food.

Wrong: They began *driving* the automobiles from the factory to the loading platform and *to load* the ship.

Right: They began *to drive* the automobiles from the factory to the loading platform and *to load* the ship.

NOTE. In parallel (co-ordinate) construction the student should balance infinitives with infinitives, participles with participles, gerunds with gerunds, finite verb-forms with finite verb-forms, and in general, any one construction with another of the same kind.

168. Avoid the nonparallelism that results from a failure to repeat the sign of the infinitive when that sign governs several infinitives and the omission leaves the meaning not immediately clear. Cf. rule 162, note 3.

Wrong: The teacher urged the pupils to do outside work and read articles on the same subjects of study.

Right: The teacher urged the pupils *to do* outside work and *to read* articles on the same subjects of study.

Wrong: I have done my best to succeed in those subjects that I could elect, understand, and use, and make them serve my pre-professional requirements.

Right: I have done my best to succeed in those subjects that I could elect, understand, and use, and *to make* them serve my pre-professional requirements.

169. Avoid the nonparallelism that results from not repeating the preposition governing two or more objects when the omission of that preposition leaves the construction not immediately clear. Cf. rule 170.

Wrong: Interest in school life should be shown not only by students but also teachers.

Right: Interest in school life should be shown not only by students but also by teachers.

Wrong: I succeeded in going through four years of college without very much trouble and graduating from my course.

Right: I succeeded in going through four years of college without very much trouble and in graduating from my course.

Wrong: My admiration for the man is due not only to these things but also his ability to understand one's ideas.

Right: My admiration for the man is due not only to these things but also to his ability to understand one's ideas. Cf. rule 156 A.

170. When correlative conjunctions are used, each correlative should be followed by a grammatical construction parallel to that which follows the other.

Wrong: He told all of them, *both* to go, *and* that they should come back at five o'clock.

Right: He told all of them, *both* to go, *and* to come back at five o'clock.

Wrong: This fact is *not only* true *but* important.

Right: This fact is *not only* true *but also* important.

NOTE 1. Do not use the construction *not only but*. The correct construction is *not only but also*. Cf. *Webster's Dictionary*.

Wrong: I have neither visited Washington nor have I traveled near the city.

Right: Neither have I visited Washington nor have I traveled near the city.

NOTE 2. The correlatives *either . . . or* are positive; the correlatives *neither . . . nor* are negative.

171. Avoid the nonparallelism that results from the failure to exclude from a group the thing compared when it is compared to other members of the group. Cf. rule 175.

Wrong: New York is larger than any city in the world except London.

Right: New York is larger than any other city in the world except London.

Wrong: He is taller than any boy in his class.

Right: He is taller than any other boy in his class.

Wrong: This is as good or better than that.

Right: This is as good as, or better than, that.

NOTE. The student should be alert to the need for a logical completion of comparisons such as those in the preceding illustrations. The omission of the word *as* following *good* would make the sentence read: *This is as good . . . than that.*

172. Avoid the improper parallelism that results from the use of a co-ordinate construction for non-parallel ideas. Such ideas should be subordinated, the one to the other. Cf. rule 174.

Wrong: The teacher asked us to prepare the lesson, but the assignment was very difficult.

Right: The teacher asked us to prepare the lesson although the assignment was very difficult.

Wrong: The hail began to fall, and we ran to the house.

Right: When the hail began to fall, we ran to the house.

Right: As the hail began to fall, we ran to the house.

Right: We ran to the house because the hail began to fall.

ILLOGICAL CONSTRUCTION

173. Avoid the use of double negatives, constructions that cause a statement to mean exactly the opposite of what is intended.

Wrong: He didn't have no pencil.

Right: He did not have a pencil.

Wrong: I have not studied but one lesson.

Right: I have studied but one lesson.

Wrong: It can't hardly be done that way.

Right: It can hardly be done that way.

Right: It can't be done that way.

Wrong: It can not be done by nobody.

Right: It can not be done by anybody.

Right: It can't be done by anyone.

174. Avoid the co-ordination of sentence elements that logically are not to be co-ordinated, but that should be subordinated, the one to the other. Express an idea in a mild form of predication; i.e., express an idea by the use of a subordinate clause, phrase, or word instead of using two independent clauses. Cf. rule 172.

Wrong: It was a clear afternoon, and two automobiles collided.

Right: Two automobiles collided one clear afternoon.

Right: One afternoon two automobiles collided although the weather was clear.

Wrong: There was a pretty cottage in the town, and by it was a beautiful oak tree.

Right: In the town there was a pretty cottage with a beautiful oak tree near by.

175. In comparing one thing to another member of

its own class, exclude from the class the thing compared.
Cf. rule 171.

Illogical: Hercules was stronger than anybody.

Correct: Hercules was stronger than anyone else.

Illogical: The Union Pacific is faster than any railroad.

Correct: The Union Pacific is faster than any other railroad.

Illogical: I never had such a good time in all my life.

Correct: I never before had such a good time in all my life.

176. Avoid the use of the cumulative *and* or *more-over*, the adversative *but* or *however*, the deductive *for* or *therefore*, and the alternative *or* or *otherwise*, and similar expressions to express meanings not logically made by such co-ordinating conjunctions or adverbs.

Wrong: He went to the show, and I stayed at home.

Right: He went to the show, but I stayed at home.

Wrong: The bus was struck by the speeding train, but the passengers were killed.

Right: The bus was struck by the speeding train, and the passengers were killed.

Wrong: I have given you your instructions; however, you obey them.

Right: I have given you your instructions; therefore you obey them.

Wrong: Low lands are dangerous in flood season, and people who inhabit them think little of the fact except in time of distress.

Right: Low lands are dangerous in flood season, but people who inhabit them think little of the fact except in time of distress.

Right: Low lands are dangerous in flood season; however,

people who inhabit them think little of the fact except in time of distress.

NOTE 1. This error may be corrected also by one's making separate, individual statements:

He went to the show. I stayed at home.

NOTE 2. If there is a distinct relationship intended between the two statements, the error may be corrected by one's changing one of the statements into a dependent clause, or phrase, or adjective, or adverb:

Although he went to the show, I stayed at home.

Such subordination, however, tends to defeat the real purpose of the correct co-ordination that was intended in the original use of the co-ordinating conjunction or the co-ordinating adverb.

177. Avoid the introduction of a sentence by the unnecessary double-worded construction of a co-ordinating conjunction and an adverb.

Wrong: But, nevertheless, he made the attempt.

Right: Nevertheless, he made the attempt.

Wrong: And so I warned the officers of the plot.

Better: So I warned the officers of the plot.

Right: I, therefore, warned the officers of the plot.

WHEN TO ITALICIZE

178. To italicize a word, a name, or a title draw one line under the word, name, or title to be italicized.

NOTE. Somewhat similar to italics are the markings to indicate that either small CAPITALS or CAPITALS should be used to set a letter or word. Two lines drawn under the

letter or word indicate the need for small capitals. Three lines indicate the need for capitals.

179. *Italics should not be replaced with the more carelessly used quotation marks. Italics and quotation marks are not to be used interchangeably.*

Foreign words and phrases that have not become naturalized in English text should be italicized.

Right: Carpe diem, c'est selon, ich dien, non sans droict.

180. Italicize the titles of literary, musical, and artistic publications. This rule applies to whole titles of books; plays in book form; the titles of newspapers, magazines, and symphonies. The Bible and the books of the Bible are not italicized.

Right: Dicken's The Tale of Two Cities

Hughes's Hell Bent For Heaven

The New York Times, but the *London Times*

The Atlantic Monthly

Dvořák's New World Symphony

NOTE. In the titles of newspapers the article *the* limiting the title, when the title is used in a sentence in connected discourse, is neither capitalized nor italicized. The name of the city is capitalized but not always italicized. The name of the paper itself is both capitalized and italicized. (Some editorial usage may differ with this.)

The student should understand that this rule of italicizing newspaper titles applies to the writing of titles as parts of sentences in themes, treatises, and the like, and not to the title as it is printed on the newspaper itself. The rule also applies to the writing of catalogues and bibliographies.

The italicizing of words in titles when those titles are incorporated in sentences is to enable the reader to interpret

the words as representing a title. In such newspaper titles the article *the* is regarded as limiting the title but not as being a part of it. Cf. rule 109.

181. A letter spoken of as a letter, a figure spoken of as a figure, a word spoken of as a word, and a phrase as a phrase should be italicized.

Right: One should cross his *t's*, loop his *l's*, and dot his *i's*.

Right: The figure 3 is not formed so well as the *9's*.

Right: The phrase *nothing to excess* should lead one to moderation.

Right: The word *and* is a conjunction, but in this sentence it is spoken of as a word and therefore is a noun.

182. Italicize the names of ships, both *water* and *air*.

Right: The *China Clipper*.

Right: The *Queen Mary*. Cf. rule 78.

NOTE. Italicize the names of plantations or homesteads. The purpose of such italics is to show a special meaning attached to the name.

Right: I live at *Hampton*. (If the italicizing of *Hampton* is omitted, one most likely would understand the word to mean some town or village. Quotation marks are not to be substituted for italics in such a use. Cf. rule 76, note.)

MAKING BIBLIOGRAPHIES

183. In making bibliographies and catalogues use one of the following accepted forms:

Coulton, G. G. *Life in the Middle Ages*. Four volumes in one illustrated. New York: Macmillan, 1931.

Raymond, G. L., *Poetry as a Representative Art*, G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Robinson, James Harvey: *The Mind in the Making*, Harper, 1921. Popular edition, \$1.

Croll, Morris W.

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John Carlisle Kilgo: *President of Trinity College, 1894-1910*, by Paul Neff Garber. Durham, N.C., Duke University Press, 1938.

K. Edschmid: *Ueber Expressionismus in der Literatur* (E. Reiss. Berlin, 1919).

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NOTE. Authorities are not agreed on the "one-and-only" form for representing items in a bibliography. For this reason no one form has been given here as *the form*. The forms represented here, however, are used by reputable publishers and writers. There are other forms of representation also. Some individuals insist upon teaching or using the one form that they prefer.

The illustrations given here are standard ones. If there is another preference that one insists upon using, no one can forbid its use except as a matter of personal preference so long as the form is an accepted one. There is no *one* way of *writing, arranging, and punctuating* items in a bibliography. A student should be as consistent as possible, however, in writing, arranging, and punctuating the items in any bibliography that he composes; he should not skip about from one accepted way of representing a title to another and then to another. *A good bibliography is always a consistent bibliography.*

SPELLING

184. Numerous scientific investigations have established the fact that spelling can be taught to any normal individual, for no special spelling disability exists. Sometimes a general disability does exist, but being *general* it affects subjects other than spelling. Poor spelling results *from a careless attitude toward spelling, a failure to enunciate and to pronounce by syllables, and the failure of the school to teach mastery in spelling.*

Spelling rules do help the student who will study them and then look for their exceptions. A knowledge of the few rules that follow will help one who cares to spell correctly.

185 A. Words of one syllable (monosyllabic) ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Right: Run — running.

Dip — dipped, dipping.

Fit — fitted, fitting.

NOTE. English and American spelling rules differ. The student must study the two sets of rules or follow the American set. Rules 185 A and 185 B have a few exceptions but are helpful in hundreds of words. Anyone will profit by a careful study of the rules of spelling (orthography) as given in *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*. American spelling rules are followed here.

185 B. Words of two syllables ending in a single

consonant preceded by a single vowel and accented on the second syllable double the final consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Right: Impél — impelled, impelling.

Excél — excelled, excelling.

Occúr — occurred, occurring.

(*Ben-e-fit*, but *benefited*, *benefiting*.)

186 A. When the final *e* is silent, it usually is dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Right: Force — forcible, forcing.

Right: Use — usable, usage.

Right: Bride — bridal.

Right: Guide — guidance, guiding, guidable.

Exceptions: In the main the exceptions to this rule are of three classes: (1) words like *shoeing*, to prevent mispronunciation; (2) words like *dyeing* and *singeing*, to prevent their being mistaken for *dying* and *singing*; (3) words like *noticeable* and *singeing* and *manageable* and *advantageous*, to prevent the *c* or *g* preceding the suffix beginning with *a* or *o* from being given the incorrect hard sound.

186 B. When the final *e* is silent, it usually is retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant.

Right: Hate — hateful, hatefully, hatefulness.

Right: Excite — excitement.

Right: Noble — nobleness.

Exceptions: Some words ending in silent *e* when the silent *e* is immediately preceded by another vowel (with the exception of *e*) drop the *e* before a suffix.

Right: Argue — argument, argumentation.

Right: Due — duly.

186 C. When a word ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed to *i* before any suffix that does not begin with *i*.

Right: Modify — modifies, but modifying.

Right: Pity — pitiful, pitiable.

Exceptions: (1) possessive cases of nouns, *city's*; (2) before the suffixes *like* and *ship*, *countrylike*, *secretaryship*, *ladylike*, *babylike*; (3) some adjectives of one syllable before adding *ly* and *ness*, like *shy*; (4) some adjectives of one syllable, like *dry* with a comparative degree, *drier* or *dryer*, and a superlative degree, *driest* or *dryest*.

186 D. Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel usually retain the *y* before all endings.

Right: Coy — coyly, coyness.

Right: Obey — obeying.

There are exceptions like *gay* — *gayety* or *gaiety*, *gayly* or *gaily*; *say*, *said*; *lay*, *laid*.

186 E. Use *i* before *e* except after *c* or when sounded as *ā*, as in *neighbor* and *weigh*. Another way of stating the same rule is this: If the digraph (two vowels or two consonants having a single speech sound) is preceded by *c*, *e* follows the *c*. If the digraph is preceded by another letter, *i* follows the letter. For exceptions to this rule, such as the words *seize*, *leisure*, and *weird*, consult the original spelling of the word in the original language of the word. For example, *seize* — OF. *seisir*;

leisure — OF. *leisir*; *weird* — AS. *wyrd* (akin to AS. *weorthan*).

186 F. Words like *picnic* and *traffic* ending in *c* add *k* before a suffix beginning in one of the vowels *e*, *i*, or *y*, (*picnic-k-ed*, *picnic-k-er*, *picnic-k-ing*; *traffic-k-ed*, *traffic-k-er*, *traffic-k-ing*). The great majority of *ic* endings denotes Greek derivatives incapable of such suffixes. For example, *ethic*, *poetic*, and *rhetoric*.

186 G. Verbs like *lie* ending in *ie* change the *ie* to *y* before adding a suffix in *ing*, (*lying*, *tie* — *tying*, sometimes *tieing*).

186 H. Adjectives like *keen*, ending in *n* do not drop the *n* before adding the suffix *ness*.

Words ending in *l* like *final* do not drop the *l* before adding the suffix *ly*. *However*:

Words like *full*, or any other word ending in a double vowel or consonant, do drop one of the double vowels or consonants when the added suffix begins with the same vowel or consonant. *Three* of the same letters do not come together, (ful (l) ly — *fully*). This spelling sometimes is *remedied* by the use of the hyphen in such a word as *thrill-less* when it is necessary to repeat the same letter three times. Cf. rule 66.

186 I. The plurals of figures, and of letters of the alphabet, and of words spoken of as words are formed by the addition of an apostrophe and *s*.

Right: There are no *if's* and *and's* about it.

Right: Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.

Right: Be careful in forming your *z*'s so that they will not look like *z*'s or *s*'s.

186 J. Some words ending in *f*, *fe*, or *ff*, like *chief*, *fife* — *fifes*, form their plural by adding *s*. The larger number of words ending in *f*, however, form their plural by changing the *f* to *v* and adding *es*, as *half* — *halves*, *calf* — *calves*.

186 K. Some nouns ending in *o* form their plural by adding *es*, as *tomato* — *tomatoes*; other nouns ending in *o* form their plural by adding *s*, as *piano* — *pianos*.

186 L. Compound words usually retain all of the letters in each or every word forming a part of the compound. Sometimes such suffixes as *full* and *mass* will drop the final consonant when made the final part of a compound word, as *truth-ful*, *use-ful*, *Christ-mas*, *Candle-mas*, *Michael-mas*.

The student will learn to spell only through the knowledge of helpful rules and a keenly developed power of observation, for while rules are definitely of great help, the *exceptions* require studied observation.

187. Anyone is able to improve his spelling ability if he will set himself the task of learning the spelling and meaning of some of the more common roots, prefixes, and suffixes in the English language. The following examples should be known by every high-school or college student:

ROOTS

<i>aer</i>	<i>air.</i>	<i>aqua</i>	<i>water.</i>
<i>alt</i>	<i>high.</i>	<i>arch</i>	<i>curve.</i>

<i>aud</i>	hear.	<i>bex</i>	six.
<i>audac</i>	bold.	<i>homo</i>	man.
<i>auto</i>	self.	<i>hydro</i> (<i>hydr</i>)	water.
<i>bene</i>	well.	<i>igni</i>	fire.
<i>bio</i>	life.	<i>ject</i>	throw.
<i>brev</i>	short.	<i>junct</i>	join.
<i>carn</i>	flesh.	<i>leg</i>	read.
<i>cede</i>	give away.	<i>lin</i>	flax.
<i>cent</i>	hundredth part.	<i>loc</i>	place.
<i>chrono</i>	time.	<i>log</i>	word.
<i>cord</i>	heart.	<i>loqu</i>	speech.
<i>corp</i> (<i>corpor</i>)	body.	<i>magn</i>	great.
<i>crat</i>	rule, authority.	<i>man</i>	hand.
<i>cred</i>	belief.	<i>mari</i>	sea.
<i>dei</i>	god.	<i>mater</i>	mother.
<i>dict</i>	statement, law.	<i>med</i>	middle.
<i>digni</i>	worthy.	<i>ment</i>	mind.
<i>domin</i>	master.	<i>metro</i>	measure.
<i>duc</i>	lead.	<i>micro</i>	small.
<i>ego</i>	I or self.	<i>mit</i>	send.
<i>fac</i>	make.	<i>mort</i>	death.
<i>fect</i>	made.	<i>mult</i>	many.
<i>fer</i>	carry.	<i>nav</i>	ship.
<i>fid</i>	trust.	<i>not</i>	mark.
<i>fili</i>	son.	<i>oct</i>	eight.
<i>fin</i>	end.	<i>ocul</i>	eye.
<i>frater</i>	brother.	<i>omni</i>	all.
<i>geo</i>	earth.	<i>ortho</i>	straight.
<i>graph</i>	write.	<i>pan</i>	all.
<i>grat</i>	favor, kindness.	<i>par</i>	make ready.
<i>gress</i>	go.	<i>part</i>	share.
<i>gyn</i>	woman.	<i>past</i>	feed.
<i>hetero</i>	other.	<i>pater</i>	father.

<i>patho</i>	feeling.	<i>scrib</i>	write.
<i>ped</i>	foot.	<i>sed</i>	sit.
<i>pel</i>	drive.	<i>sent</i>	feel.
<i>pend</i>	hang.	<i>socio</i>	companion.
<i>penta</i> (<i>pent</i>)	five.	<i>soph</i>	wise.
<i>pet</i>	seek.	<i>spec</i>	look.
<i>philo</i> (<i>phil</i>)	loving.	<i>spir</i>	breathe.
<i>phobia</i>	fear.	<i>struc</i>	build.
<i>phone</i> (<i>phono</i>)	sound.	<i>tang</i>	touch.
<i>poli</i>	city.	<i>tele</i>	far.
<i>poly</i>	many.	<i>tempor</i>	time.
<i>pono</i> (<i>pos</i>)	place.	<i>ten</i>	hold.
<i>port</i>	carry.	<i>theo</i>	god.
<i>prim</i>	first.	<i>total</i>	whole.
<i>pseudo</i> (<i>pseud</i>)	false.	<i>util</i>	use.
<i>psycho</i> (<i>psych</i>)	soul.	<i>vert</i>	turn.
<i>rupt</i>	break.	<i>vid</i>	sight, vision, see.

188.

PREFIXES

a, at, in, on.

a, not, less, without, un.

a, *ab*, *abs*, from away, off, away from.

ac, *ad*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *ar*, *as*, *at*, to, at, belonging to.

amphi, around, about, on both sides, of both kinds.

ana, items of.

ana, up, upward, backward, again, anew, greatly, excessively.

ante, *anti*, before, prior, against, opposite, instead, counter.

be, about, over, all around, on all sides, completely, excessively, away from.

bi, two, twice, doubly.

circum, around, about, on all sides.

cis, on this side.

co, *col*, *com*, *con*, *cor*, with, together, jointly.

contra, counter, against, contrary, in opposition.

de, down, from, completely.

deca, *dec*, ten.

demi, half, below the standard of.

di, twofold, double, twice.

di, *dif*, *dis*, separation, reversal.

di, *dia*, through, between, apart.

e, *ec*, *ef*, *ex*, out of, from.

en, in, into, cover with, make into or like.

epi, upon, beside, among, on the outside, above, over.

equi, equally, having equal.

for, off, away.

fore, before, beforehand.

il, *im*, *in*, *ir*, not.

il, *im*, *in*, *ir*, *en*, in, into.

inter, among, between, together.

intra, *intro*, within, into.

meta, along with, after.

mis, ill, wrongly.

non, not.

o, *ob*, *oc*, *of*, *op*, against.

out, out, outer, beyond.

over, above.

para, beside, alongside of, beyond, aside from, amiss.

per, through.

peri, all round, about, beyond.

post, after.

pre, before.

pro, for, forth, forward, before.

re, again, back, backward.

sub, *suc*, *suf*, *sum*, *sup*, *sus*, after, under.

super, *sur*, above, over.

syn, with, along with, together, at the same time.

tra, trans, across, over, beyond, through.

un, not.

under, beneath.

with, against, back, away.

189.

SUFFIXES

able, ible, capacity, fitness, worthiness, favoring, tending to.
ac, of, belonging to.

aceous, pertaining or belonging to, of the nature of.

acious, given to, abounding in.

acity, given to, abounding in.

acy, quality, state, office.

age, in relationship of, act or process, place of abode, a fee.

al, belonging to, pertaining to, having the character of.

an, belonging or pertaining to.

ance, ence, anc, ency, act or fact of, state of being, concrete fact, or thing.

ant, ent, being, person, thing, or agent who.

ar, of the nature of, like, belonging to, one concerned with.

ary, one concerned with, pertaining to, one engaged in.

ate, possessing, characterized by having.

ed, possessed of, characterized by, furnished with.

en, made of.

en, to make, to render.

ee, the one to whom an act is done, upon whom a right is conferred.

er, eer, ier, one who deals in, is concerned with.

ery, character, act, art, trade, collection.

fy, to make, to form into.

hood, state, condition, quality, character.

ic, ics, ical, of or pertaining to.

id, having the quality of.

ie, forming diminutives.

ile, of or pertaining to, capable of.

ing, the act, fact, or art of doing, that which does or results from the doing.

ion, act or process, state or condition.

ish, like, resembling, of the nature of.

ist, one who does or practices.

ity, state, condition, quality, or degree.

ive, having the nature of.

ize, to subject to, put into conformity with.

less, without, free from.

ly, like in manner.

ment, a concrete result, an action, a state.

ness, state, condition, quality, or degree; an instance.

or, agent, doer, one who, state of.

ory, pertaining to, place of.

ose, *ous*, like, having the qualities of.

tude, state, condition, instance.

ty, quality, state, condition.

ward, course or direction, motion or tendency toward.

wise, in the characteristic manner.

y, having or pertaining to.

THE TOPIC OUTLINE

190. In accepted use there are three forms of the outline: the *topic*, the *sentence*, and the *paragraph* outlines. The topic form, however, is the simplest and most frequently used one. It is the preferred form for student themes, for it is most nearly like the note-taking practices of students who take their notes through the use of *key-words* or *key-word constructions*. Certain characteristic requirements of the topic-outline

form should be understood by every student, for in outlining, as in everything else, consistency is necessary. For example:

(1) In the title of an outline the first word and every other word except prepositions, articles, and conjunctions, must be capitalized.

(2) Between the title of the outline and the first main heading in the outline form itself *a space twice the extent* of the spacing used elsewhere in the outline form should be left.

(3) In the paragraph topics, and in the paragraph subtopics, no words are capitalized except the first word and all proper nouns and proper adjectives.

(4) Topic outlines are written in *terms* of nouns, with or without their modifiers, as the requirements of the outline may justify. *No finite verb-forms are to be used in a topic outline.* Cf. addenda, rules 118-123.

(5) The outline must have the same number of paragraphs as has the theme itself, for the outline is a briefly worded picture of the theme. The reader wants to know what to expect when he reads the theme, and because of this fact the outline serves as a preview. The outline is to a theme what the headlines are to a newspaper column, or what a blueprint is to a construction project. Each paragraph in the theme should be indicated in the outline by the use of a Roman numeral, and as each paragraph is added to the outline, an additional Roman numeral should indicate it. Divisions or subdivisions within a paragraph are indicated by lesser numerals and alphabetical letters in the outline, the Roman numerals standing out as the paragraph

markers. A detailed outline follows later in this discussion.

(6) Usually an introductory paragraph should not be labeled *introduction*, nor a concluding paragraph, *conclusion*. The labeling of the paragraph should be in terms of the central thought or idea that it contains.

(7) Paragraphs usually contain from fifty to two hundred and fifty words each; however, there is no set limit to the number of words to be included other than that which the development of the paragraph-idea requires. Of course, it should be understood that a paragraph-idea can not be developed adequately in one sentence, for a paragraph is understood to be one complete *division* or discussion of a topic, chapter, or theme. A topic seldom can be developed or discussed in one sentence. Sometimes, however, a single sentence may be indented as if it were a paragraph, but when this is true, the sentence usually serves as a transitional sentence placed between two paragraphs instead of at the beginning or ending of one of the two paragraphs. The transitional sentence indented as a separate paragraph should not be mistaken for, or confused with, the *development-paragraph* within a discussion, treatise, or theme.

(8) Paragraphs are themselves subdivided in the outline form in keeping with the need for the subdivision — a longer paragraph requiring more subdividing. The fact that one paragraph is subdivided does not of itself mean that every other paragraph has to be subdivided similarly. The sole purpose of the outline to the writer is to enable him to think clearly throughout his writing. The sole purpose of the outline to the

reader is to enable him to see the plan of the writing that he is about to read. Outlines do serve important purposes in the business world, as, for example, architects' specifications and lawyers' briefs.

191. The following example of the topic outline *form* represents *one paragraph* marked with a Roman I in the outline form. The subdivisions are marked with their characteristic capitals, Arabic numerals, small letters, and parenthesized figures and small letters, extending to whatever length of subdividing the nature of the paragraph requires. Each division or subdivision is explained in the statement that accompanies it.

Every additional paragraph needed should be indicated with another Roman numeral and any necessary additional subdivisions, as the thought of the paragraph may require.

(For the possible use of *roman* or *arabic* with a small letter cf. rule 114, note 2.)

THE TITLE

- I. The *Roman I*, followed by a period, represents the first main idea by which one is to develop his subject. This is the correct marking for the first paragraph.
 - A. *Capital A*, followed by a period, represents the first important idea or fact by which one is to support *Roman I*. Later on in the outline *Capital A* will be followed by a parallel *Capital B*, for a *single* subhead can not be used to modify a more important statement in a topic outline. If there is need, a *Capital C, D*, etc., may be used also.

1. *Arabic 1*, followed by a period, represents an idea in the development of *Capital A*. This *Arabic 1* may be subdivided into small *a*, *b*, *c*, etc.
2. *Arabic 2*, followed by a period, represents another idea, parallel to *Arabic 1*, in the development of *Capital A*. (As many subheads parallel to *Arabic 1* and *2* as are needed may be used, but never may such a subhead be used without one or more added parallel ones.)
 - a. *Small a*, followed by a period, represents subordinate matter in support of *Arabic 2*. This *Small a* must be followed by a parallel *b*, *c*, etc.
 - b. *Small b*, followed by a period, represents additional subordinate matter in support of *Arabic 2*.

(More subheads parallel to *a* and *b* may be used if they are needed, but a *single* subhead may not stand alone.)
- (1) *Arabic (1)*, within parentheses, represents a subhead in support of *Small b*. This (1) must have its parallel (2), etc.
 - (a) *Small (a)*, within parentheses, represents an item in support of (1). It also must be followed by a (b), etc.
 - (b) *Small (b)*, within parentheses, represents an item also in support of (1).
- (2) *Arabic (2)*, within parentheses, represents an idea also in support of *Small b*.
- B. *Capital B*, followed by a period, represents

another, the second, important idea parallel to *Capital A* in support of *Roman I*. (This *Capital B* may be subdivided in a manner similar to that in *Capital A* if the thought within the paragraph makes such subdividing necessary.)

The following specimen outline is intended to show the *topic-outline* form. The student, however, should understand that the subject matter might be subdivided in more detail.)

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

- I. The *Constitution*.
 - A. Its origin.
 - B. Its provisions.
- II. The legislative branch of the Federal Government.
 - A. The Senate.
 1. Its members.
 - a. Their qualifications.
 - b. Their election.
 2. Its duties.
 3. Its rights or privileges.
 - a. More dignified body.
 - b. Congressional immunity.
 - c. Approval of Presidential appointees.
 - d. Right of impeachment.
 - B. The House of Representatives.
 1. Its members.
 - a. Their qualifications.
 - b. Their election.
 2. Its legislative right to initiate or propose bills.
 3. Its duties or privileges.

III. The Executive.

A. The President of the United States.

1. Qualifications for office.
2. Term of office.
3. Election.
4. Duties.
5. Powers.

B. The Vice-President.

1. Qualifications for office.
2. Term of office.
3. Duties.

IV. The Judiciary.

A. The Federal Circuit Court.

1. Appointment.
2. Term of office.
3. Jurisdiction.

B. The Federal Court of Appeals.

1. Appointment.
2. Term of office.
3. Jurisdiction.

C. The Supreme Court.

1. Constitutional provisions.
2. Appointment to office.
3. Term of office.
4. Duties.
5. Relationship to the Congress and the President.

FOOTNOTES

192. Footnotes may be *reference notes* recording the source of material which is not the author's own, or they may be supplementary notes used in an explanatory way, amplifying a detail in the text in which they appear. Sometimes they may be used in order that the author may take an exception to quoted matter which he does not consider to be entirely correct, or that he may give the reader the opportunity to investigate the subject further. Footnotes sometimes may explain a foreign word or phrase.

The *reference* footnote is used for the purpose of giving sufficient and exact information concerning a quoted or cited statement or fact. This footnote should be such as will enable the reader to find the source of the statement, to examine the source if he cares to do so, and to verify the fact stated. Facts commonly known are public property, free to be used by anyone. Ideas or facts not original with the author, and special ways of expressing these facts, must be identified with their originator. This identification is made through the use of the footnote. *For example,*

¹ See Louise Pound, "The Ballad and the Dance," *Pub. Mod. Lang. Assoc.*, vol. 34, no. 3 (September, 1919), and Andrew Lang's article on "Ballads" in Chambers' *Cyclopedia of Eng. Lit.*, ed. of 1902.

A footnote is indicated by an Arabic numeral (followed by no mark of punctuation) placed as a *super-script* or *superior figure* and to the right of the word to

be commented on. This numeral is placed slightly above the type line but never on the line above, and usually at the end of the quoted matter. However, if the reference is to a quotation, the numeral may be placed at the beginning or at the end of the quotation, the preferred position being that at the end. If the reference is to a book, the numeral may be placed after the title or after the word making the reference. *For example,*

When Taillefer, knight and minstrel, rode in front of the Norman line at the battle of Hastings, "singing of Charlemagne and of Roland and of Oliver and the Vassals who fell at Roncevaux," he typified the coming triumphs of French song in England.¹ French lyrical fashions would have won their way, no doubt, had there been no battle of Hastings.² The banners of William the Conqueror had. . . .

In the footnotes themselves at the bottom of the page the reference numeral precedes the footnote and is placed as a *superscript* or *superior figure*. *For example,*

¹ See E. B. Reed, *English Lyrical Poetry*, chap. 2. 1912.

² See Bliss Perry, *A Study of Poetry*, chap. 9, p. 311. 1920.

(Usually in footnotes the last name of the author is given last, while in bibliographies the last name is given first for the sake of alphabetizing the listings.) Cf. the preceding footnotes.

In a manuscript that is being prepared for the printer, a footnote may be placed immediately below the word or passage to which it refers. In this placement it is separated from the body of the text by a line drawn

across the page — one line drawn above the footnote, and one drawn below it. *For example,*

— “singing of Charlemagne and of Roland and of Oliver and the vassals who fell at Roncevaux,” he typified the coming triumph of French song in England.¹

¹ See E. B. Reed, *English Lyrical Poetry*, chap. 2. 1912.

No mark of punctuation follows the Arabic numeral used in the context to indicate the fact that there is a footnote, nor does one follow the Arabic numeral used in the lefthand margin at the bottom of the page designating the footnote. *This rule of punctuation does not refer to Arabic numerals within the footnote itself.* Cf. rule 2.

Footnotes have the same paragraph indentation as do the regularly indented paragraphs of the paper. Footnotes are single spaced, but one footnote is separated from another by double spacing.

Some writers begin a new series of footnotes on each page instead of numbering the notes consecutively throughout the paper or pages. Common practice, however, numbers the footnotes continuously throughout the entire paper or throughout the chapter in a longer literary work. *The justification for numbering the notes at the bottom of each page separately is that such a plan enables the writer to add additional notes later without disrupting the entire plan of enumeration.*

Footnotes should be brief but exact. The first note referring to a book must give full information concerning its publication — the full title of the book, story,

poem, or article. If there is more than one volume to the work, the volume number must be given — first the name of the author, then the title, then the volume, if necessary, and then the page or pages. (Cf. rules 178–182 for italics.) These facts of publication sometimes furnish the reader valuable information about the citation.

Ibid. Many abbreviations are accepted and used in footnotes. In successive or consecutive footnotes (if the footnotes are numbered continuously throughout the paper) repetition is avoided by the use of *ibid.*, used like ditto marks indicating repeated information given immediately above. (The word is the Latin *ibidem*, meaning “in the same place.”) *Ibid.* can not be used if a reference to another article or book intervenes. It can be used, however, even on another page from that of the preceding footnote to which it refers if the footnotes are numbered continuously throughout the paper. The references must be consecutive ones.

Op. cit. A later, but not consecutive, reference to a book already cited may be indicated by *op. cit.* (Latin *opere citato*, meaning “in the work cited.”) *Op. cit.* may be used when only one book by the author has been referred to. *Op. cit.* is followed by the page reference, and by the author’s name unless it has been mentioned at the relevant point ahead.

Loc. cit. (Latin *loco citato*, meaning “in the place cited.”) is used to refer to the same page referred to before. When the reference is to the preceding reference and the same page, *loc. cit.* may be used instead of *ibid.* When other footnotes stand between it and

the earlier reference, *op. cit.*, preceded by the author's name, may be used.

It should be noted that *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, and *loc. cit.* never are capitalized unless they begin a sentence. (So also with *n.p.*, in such an instance as that in which it is capitalized later in this discussion.)

Other abbreviations used are:

ad. loc. (Latin *ad locum*) for *at the place (passage) cited.*

art. (plural *arts.*) for *article.*

c. or *ca.* (Latin *circa*, meaning "about" with dates) for *at or near a given date.*

cf. (Latin *confer*) for *compare.*

ch. or *chap.* (plural *chaps.*) for *chapter.*

col. (plural *cols.*) for *column.*

e.g. (Latin *exempli gratia*) for *for example.*

et al. (Latin *et alii*) for *and others.*

f. (plural *ff.*) for *following (pages).*

fig. (plural *figs.*) for *figure.*

id. or *idem.* for *the same; the same as that mentioned above.*

i.e. for *that is.*

intro. for *introduction.*

l. (plural *ll.*) for *line.*

n. (plural *nn.*) for *note.*

no. (plural *nos.*) for *number.*

p. (plural *pp.*) for *pages.*

pp. 2-9 for *pages 2 to 9 inclusive.* Cf. rule 86.

pp. 2f. for *page 2 and the following page.*

pp. 2ff. for *page 2 and the pages following.*

pref. for *preface.*

sec. (plural *secs.*) for *section*.

st. for *stanza*.

vol. (plural *vols.*) for *volume*.

v. for *verse*.

Other notations are:

passim (Latin) for *here and there; everywhere*.

supra for *above*.

vide infra for *see below*.

vide supra for *see above*.

Infra below, *supra* above, *ante* before, and *post* after refer to other passages in the paper being written.

Vide, sometimes *v.*, means *see*.

Viz. means *namely*.

Sic (inserted in brackets after a word, quotation, or the equivalent) indicates that the writer is using the exact words of the author whom he is quoting and that he takes no responsibility for the fact quoted or for the language.

[*N.p.*] enclosed in square brackets means that no place of publication is given. *N.D.*, or *n.d.* enclosed in square brackets means that no date of publication is given; *s.d.* enclosed in square brackets means that no day of publication (*sine die*) is given. Cf. rule 54. When such information can be furnished from some other source, the information is enclosed in square brackets, as [Edinburgh] or [1850].

Since custom in the use of footnotes varies somewhat, the form first used in a paper should be followed consistently throughout the pages of that paper.

It is more gracious, though to some perhaps less

learned, to use the English equivalents of the footnote abbreviations given in the foregoing listings.

FOUR SUGGESTED CAUTIONS

193. Abbreviations other than those like *Mr.*, *Dr.*, *Pb.D.*, and the like are not to be used in formal writing. Such unnecessary, shortened spellings are indications of haste and are discourteous in a formal style that requires painstaking care.

194. Contractions are not to be used in formal writing. They are indications of haste and are discourteous in a formal style. Informal, colloquial writing may contain contractions so that the style may not appear stilted or stiff, but the student should distinguish the formal from the informal.

195. A comma can not be used to take the place of a period to mark the end of a sentence (*the comma blunder*), nor can one be used to take the place of a semicolon standing between the independent clauses of a compound sentence. Cf. rules I and 37.

NOTE. The comma, however, may be used between independent clauses when they are used in a series of three or more. Cf. rules 16 and 37.

Right: The winds blew, the rains descended, the floods came.

Such a sentence is used for emphasis. Otherwise it would be punctuated according to rule 37 or according to rule 16 with an *and* before the last element in the series.

Wrong: He saw the automobile careen from the highway, it crashed with a terrible impact against the abutment of the bridge.

Right: He saw the automobile careen from the highway; it crashed with a terrible impact against the abutment of the bridge.

Wrong: The warning was sounded, it went unheeded.

Right: The warning was sounded; it went unheeded.

Right: The warning was sounded, but it went unheeded.

196. A phrase or a dependent clause can not be used as a complete sentence in formal writing, nor should it be used as such in informal writing unless used as an elliptical sentence. (Cf. rule I.) This rule means simply this: A complete sentence must be one that has a subject in the nominative case and a predicate in the finite form of the verb (indicative, subjunctive, or imperative). The nature of this predicate will determine whether the sentence will need a direct object, a predicate adjective, or a predicate nominative, or no one of these three. Cf. the *addenda* to the verb forms, to the rules 118-123.

This misuse of a phrase or a dependent clause as a complete sentence is known as a *no-sentence* error, marked *N.S.*

THE LETTER OF FRIEND
SHIP *and* THE BUSINESS
LETTER

197 A. In a letter of friendship, and in a business letter, the *inside address*, the *heading*, and the *complimentary close* may be written in the *block form* or in the *indented form*. The punctuation may be either the *open* or the *closed form*.

In *open* punctuation no marks of punctuation are used at the ends of the lines.

In *closed* punctuation a comma follows each line except the last, and there a period is placed.

Block form, open punctuation:

HEADINGS

Washington Duke Hotel
Durham, North Carolina
January 1, 1941

Indented form, open punctuation:

Washington Duke Hotel
Durham, North Carolina
January 1, 1941

Block form, closed punctuation:

Washington Duke Hotel,
Durham, North Carolina,
January 1, 1941.

Indented form, closed punctuation:

Washington Duke Hotel,
Durham, North Carolina,
January 1, 1941.

B. Inside Addresses.

Block form, open punctuation, or

Block form, closed punctuation.

Indented form, open punctuation, or

Indented form, closed punctuation. Cd. D and J following.

A consistent use of *open* or of *closed* punctuation should be followed throughout the heading, the inside address, and the complimentary close of a letter.

C. In the Heading of a letter:

(1) Street numbers precede the name of the city.

(2) House numbers are written in Arabic numerals but are not preceded by any sign or word.

(3) Street numbers less than ten usually are spelled out.

(4) The word *street* must not be omitted from street directions.

(5) The *date* consists of the name of the month (not its number), the day of the month, and the completed number of the year (not its contracted or apostrophized number).

(6) The numbers in the date are written in Arabic numerals.

(7) The terminations *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *d*, and *th* are not to be placed after the number of the day. (Such *crutches* serve no purpose, as one easily may understand if he will consider the placement of *ordinal* numerals.)

(8) Abbreviations are not to be used in the heading of a friendly letter, and should be avoided even in business letters.

(9) The heading is placed at the beginning of the letter, and at the right of the page.

(10) In business letters when the printed form contains the *heading* printed in the middle of the page near the top, the date should be written at the right of the page. It may be written immediately under the printed heading.

D. The Inside Address and the Salutation:

The inside address has these characteristics:

- (1) It is placed on the left-hand side of the page.
- (2) It is placed below the line on which the heading on the right has ended, equally spaced with the other letter-lines.
- (3) It may be written on two lines or on three lines:

Mr. Caleb Green,
Washington Duke Hotel,
Durham, North Carolina.

or

Mr. Caleb Green,
Durham, North Carolina.

(4) The first line of the inside address must have a marginal placement at the extreme left of the page the same as that of the body of the letter. Either the *block* or the *indented* form may be used for the other lines of the inside address, *consistent* with the form used elsewhere in the letter.

(5) In letters of friendship the inside address may be omitted if the one to whom the letter is addressed is a close personal friend, and if at the time he is not ad-

dressed as one holding a position of honor or high respect.

(6) In letters other than those dealing with business transactions the inside address may stand either above the *salutation* or at the bottom of the letter and at the left-hand side of the page.

(7) If the attention of a particular member of the firm addressed is to be called to the letter, such an expression as *Attention of Mr. Green* may be placed immediately above the salutation *Gentlemen* or immediately following it and on the same line.

(8) Names in the inside address must be preceded by their proper titles. These titles must not be omitted. Only such titles as *Mr.*, *Dr.*, *The Rev.*, *Mrs.*, *The Hon.*, *Messrs.*, and such a one as *Esq.*, which means *Mr.*, may be abbreviated in the inside address. Of course, honorary degrees following a man's name may be abbreviated.

E. The Salutation Has These Characteristics:

(1) In the proper salutations: *Dear Sir.*, *Dear Madam.*, *Ladies.*, *Gentlemen.*, *My dear Sir.*, *My dear Madam.*, and *My dear Mr. Green.*, used in business letters, the word *my* makes the salutation more formal than the salutation without the *my*.

(2) In salutations the *first* word and the *last* word are the only words capitalized unless there happens to be another word that is a proper noun or proper adjective. Cf. rules 45 and 88, note.

(3) The salutations in business letters are always followed by a colon, never by any other mark of punctuation. Cf. rule 45.

(4) The less formal salutations of friendly letters are followed by the comma of direct address. Cf. rule 7. Correct informal salutations are:

Dear John, Dear Aunt Martha, Dearest Mother, My dear Dad, My dear Mr. Green, etc.

(5) The words *Dear* or *My dear* must precede all correctly written salutations in letters of friendship.

(6) The salutation must have the same marginal placement as the first line of the inside address, and the main body of the letter.

F. In the body of the letter the first paragraph follows immediately under and after the *comma* or *colon* marking the end of the salutation. Sometimes, however, usage permits the first paragraph to begin to the left of the punctuation marking the end of the salutation, but, of course, on the first line below, in keeping with the spacing of the letter as a whole; i.e., single or double spacing.

When the typewritten form of a letter is single spaced and written in the *block* form, paragraphs may be written without paragraph indentation if a double space is left between the paragraphs.

G. The proper complimentary closes for business letters: *Yours truly, Very truly yours, Yours very truly, Respectfully yours, Yours respectfully*, are followed by a comma in the *closed* form of punctuation but by no mark of punctuation in the *open* form. In any complimentary close, however, *only the first word is capitalized*. Cf. rule 88, note. The complimentary close is written on a separate line, uniformly or consist-

ently spaced, immediately below the last line of the body of the letter and toward the right side of the page.

H. The proper complimentary closes for letters of friendship are less formal than those of business letters but are followed by the comma in *closed* punctuation, and by no mark of punctuation in the *open* form.

· Proper complimentary close forms are: *Sincerely yours*, *Very sincerely yours*, *Yours sincerely*, *Yours very sincerely*, *Cordially yours*, etc.

The word *yours* should not be omitted from the complimentary close in either the business or the friendly letter. Only the first word in the complimentary close is capitalized. Cf. Rule 88, note.

I. The signature of a letter should be written by hand and should be placed under the complimentary close and slightly toward the right side of the page.

In a *business letter* a woman should sign her full name, giving her pre-marriage name followed by the surname of her husband. Below this signature she should sign within parentheses her husband's name preceded by her title *Mrs.*

Correct: Mary Marvin Strudwick.

(Mrs. Calvin Stroud Strudwick.)

If a woman is a widow, her letter should be signed with her title *Mrs.* within parentheses, followed by her pre-marriage name, followed by the surname of her deceased husband.

Correct: (Mrs.) Mary Marvin Strudwick.

An unmarried woman should sign her full name with her title *Miss* within parentheses, preceding it.

Correct: (Miss) Mary Loomis Hanner.

In informal social letters the titles *Mrs.*, *Miss*, or *Mr.*, never should be used in the signature.

J. All letters should be well written. Hackneyed, trite, time-worn expressions should be avoided. The wording of a letter should conform to accepted good usage couched in the writer's own phrases.

The following example of a short business letter illustrates the arrangement of the letter-form:

Box 254 University of Washington
Seattle, Washington
September 29, 1940

The National Geographic Society
Hubbard Memorial Hall
Washington, D.C.

My dear Sir:

I am enclosing my check for an additional subscription to the *National Geographic*. My mailing address is the same as that of my last subscription.

Very truly yours
Anson Donahue

The following example of a correctly written letter of friendship illustrates the arrangement of the friendly letter-form:

Box 254 University of Washington,
Seattle, Washington,
September 29, 1940.

My dear Mr. Jones,

I wish to thank you for your close co-operation with the administration of this university's academic work. You have demonstrated that athletes can be taught to be students also.

Sincerely yours,
Anson Donahue

Mr. Barnard Jones,
1001 University Drive,
Seattle, Washington.

NOTE. The business letter is given here in *open* punctuation, while the friendly letter is given in the *closed* form. Each letter may be written correctly in either the open or the closed form, according to the will of the writer.

198. The Formal Note.

The formal note written always in the *third person* has the following characteristics:

A. There is no heading, no inside address, no salutation, no complimentary close, no signature.

B. There is absolutely no use of the pronoun *I* or the pronoun *you*, for the third person is used consistently and solely throughout the note.

C. No abbreviations whatsoever are permissible except Mr., Mrs., Messrs., and Dr. (Note. The word *Miss* is not an abbreviation.)

D. The numbers used to represent dates must be spelled out. The following notes will serve as examples:

The note of invitation

Mr. and Mrs. Caleb Green request the pleasure of Miss Groover's company at dinner on Monday, July the twenty-second, at seven-thirty o'clock.

1001 University Drive,
July the twelfth.

The note of acceptance

(Only the present tense may be used in letters of acceptance or regret.)

Miss Groover accepts with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Green's invitation to dinner on July the twenty-second.

1537 Chelsea Circle,
July the fourteenth.

The note of regret

Miss Groover regrets that she is unable to accept Mr. and Mrs. Green's invitation for July the twenty-second.

1537 Chelsea Circle,
July the fourteenth.

NUMBERS

199. The Representation of Numbers.

A. *When only a few numbers are to be expressed in writing a theme or other written exercise, spell out all of the numbers that may be written in one or two words.* The reason for this rule is the psychological principle of eye-span. An individual can grasp the meaning of one

or two words in a glance, but he can not grasp the meaning of a longer group. For this reason numerals that would require more than two words are usually not spelled out.

Right: The census report gives the city a population of *sixty thousand*, but this is only *seventy-five* per cent of the county population.

Wrong: The number that the census report actually should have given is *fifty-nine thousand, nine hundred and ninety-seven*.

Right: The number that the census report actually should have given is *59,997*. Cf. the eye-span in these two illustrations.

B. When a short passage contains several numbers and the representation of these numbers in spelling would confuse the reader, all of the numbers should be represented in figures.

Wrong: In this town there are twenty-one pool rooms, thirty-nine churches, four hospitals, fifteen schools, and fifty-three thousand, seven hundred and twenty people.

Right: In this town there are 21 pool rooms, 39 churches, 4 hospitals, 15 schools, and a population of 53,720. (Cf. the ease of interpretation in this *right* illustration with the confusing one in the *wrong*.)

C. A sentence should not begin with numerals expressed in figures. Such numerals should be spelled out if they are used at the beginning of a sentence, or the sentence should be recast.

Wrong: 57 is the number that I guessed.

Right: Fifty-seven is the number that I guessed.

Right: I guessed 57. (The objection to beginning a sentence with a numeral expressed in figures is based on the likelihood of the reader's mistaking the figure for an enumeration outside the sentence instead of understanding it as a part of the sentence itself.)

D. When time is expressed in connection with the abbreviations A.M. and P.M., figures are used.

Right: I arrived exactly at 9:45 P.M.

E. In writing themes, essays, or other written exercises (other than formal notes in the third person) one should not spell out the numerals representing the parts, chapters, paragraphs, sections, rules, or lines of books, periodicals, etc. Cf. rule 192.

Page numbers, street numbers, and dates are not spelled out in ordinary writing. Formal notes in the third person do require the spelling out of all figures except street numbers.

F. When sums of money are to be written into a theme, essay, or other passage in connected writing, the following rules should be followed:

1. No dollar mark (\$) should be used for sums less than one dollar.

Wrong: I spent \$0.75.

Right: I spent seventy-five cents.

2. The ciphers (.00) should not be used. Only when one or more cents must be represented should any such percentage of the hundred mark be made.

Wrong: The article will cost \$5.00.

Right: The article will cost \$5.

3. The dollar mark (\$) and figures should be used

to represent sums of money that amount to *dollars and cents*.

Right: The price of the book including the tax is \$2.77 for single orders.

4. Figures should not be used to represent a sum that is used as an adjective.

Wrong: I lost my coat and a \$20 bill.

Right: I lost my coat and a twenty-dollar bill. (Cf. rule 66.)

5. *When a number representing a sum of money is spelled out, the number should not be repeated in figures placed within parentheses.*

Right: You may spend only twenty dollars.

In banking transactions and in commercial letters the numbers may be repeated in figures placed within parentheses, for such a repetition serves to promote accuracy just as does the repetition in spelled-out numerals on a check repeat the figures written in the dollar space ahead. (The sum within parentheses should stand immediately after the expression or number that it repeats.)

Right: Your balance shows only twenty dollars (\$20).

Right: Your balance shows only twenty (20) dollars.

NOTE. Throughout the representation of numbers, for whatever purpose, it would be well for the student to understand that there are three kinds of numerals: the *cardinal*, the *ordinal*, and the *multiplicative*. If this is understood, the student will see the utter lack of necessity in combining the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and the spelling terminations *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *th* of the ordinal words *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, etc. The very placement of a figure indicates its nature and

function as a cardinal or an ordinal numeral. For example, *August 10, 1940*, can mean only the ordinal *tenth*. Also, *Forty-second Street* is clearly seen in *42 Street* without the *crutch nd* following the *42*. Practices may vary, however.

PRINCIPLES OF UNITY, COHERENCE, AND EMPHASIS

200. The Three Principles of Unity Within the Sentence: Cf. *Thematic Symbols*, rule 203, *US.*, *U¶.*, *Ue¶.*, *Uf¶.*, *Uf T.*

A. Are the ideas in the clauses within the sentence related?

B. Is the relationship the logical relationship?

C. Is the relationship logically expressed?

NOTE. *The answers to these three questions will serve to test the unity in any English sentence.*

201. The Principles of Coherence: Cf. rules 139-177.

A. There should be no faulty or uncertain reference of any pronoun used in the sentence. Cf. rules 139-148.

B. There should be no improper placing of any modifier: word, phrase, or clause. Cf. rules 149-162.

C. There should be no unnecessary shifts in grammatical construction: needless shifts in point of view; needless shifts from the active to the passive voice; lack of parallel construction for parallel ideas; illogical co-ordination. Cf. rules 165-177.

202. The Nine Principles of Emphasis:

A. The *beginning* and *the end of a sentence* are the most emphatic positions; therefore, an idea placed

either at the beginning or at the end is emphasized because of the position.

B. Within a sentence there is a kind of secondary emphasis before and after a mark of punctuation. *Cf. rule 8.* This illustrates the principle that a comma placed after the dependent adverbial clause, preceding the main statement, gives emphasis to the subject of the main clause.

C. Words out of their natural order are emphatic. The usual order of words is: *subject, predicate, and then predicate adjective, predicate nominative, or direct object.* Consequently, the changed order of words attracts attention. For example, *Greatly is he to be praised.*

D. Words or ideas placed in contrast are emphasized. This is the principle of *antithesis*.

E. The balanced sentence is emphatic because the ideas are played, the one against the other, not in contrast, but in parallel meaning and position. (The use of the comma and the semicolon aids in creating this balance in accordance with *B*, preceding.)

As examples of the balanced sentence:

Marlowe first established blank verse as the regular measure for tragedy; Shakespeare elevated the measure to its heights.

Shakespeare proved himself great; the world has acclaimed him such.

Shakespeare was not of an age, but for all time.

Plutarch in his "Lives" portrayed Julius Caesar; Shakespeare in his play displayed him.

F. Words, phrases, or clauses placed in climactic order are emphasized because of their scale of *ascendancy*. For example, *Washington was first in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his countrymen*. Here one may see that the natural order of the events is shown in the arrangement of the ideas according to the time of their happening.

G. Periodic sentences are emphatic, especially when placed among *loose* sentences. In the periodic sentence the predicate is placed last. Also, sometimes the subject may be withheld. The one final check, however, is that the thought must not be completed until the last word has been used. There is no other place within the sentence where a period may come. *On the other hand* the loose sentence is *loose* because more than one spot may be marked by a period and the thought be complete to that point. The *periodic* sentence holds the reader's attention.

As an illustration of the periodic sentence contrasted with its identical idea in the loose sentence form, one may take the first sentence in Milton's *Paradise Lost*:

Periodic: *Of man's first disobedience and the fruit of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste brought death into the world and all our woe with loss of Eden till one greater man restore us and regain the blissful seat, sing, heavenly Muse . . .* (The sentence is a *periodic* one to this point, but from here it is *loose*, for a period may be placed at any one of the stops indicated by the (.) to be used.) *that on the secret top of Oreb, or of Sinai, did'st inspire that shepherd, (.) who first taught*

the chosen seed, (.) in the beginning (.) how the heavens and earth rose (.) out of chaos: (.) or, if Sion hill delight thee more, and Siloa's brook that flowed fast by the oracle of God, I thence invoke thy aid (.) to my adventurous song, (.) that with no middle flight intends to soar (.) above (.) the Aonian mount, (.) while it pursues (.) things (.) unattempted (.) yet (.) in prose (.) or rhyme.

NOTE. If the subject and predicate and direct address, *Sing, heavenly Muse*, had been placed as the first words in the sentence, the entire sentence would have been *loose*.

A shorter, simpler example of the periodic sentence is:

Upon going to my room after my first class on Monday morning, I shall do the assignment. (It is impossible for one to place a period within this sentence.)

The same sentence in the *loose* form, however, is:

I shall do my assignment (.) upon going to my room (.) after my first class (.) on Monday (.) morning. (There are five points at any one of which a sentence might end.)

H. The subordination of the less important idea in a sentence immediately emphasizes the idea placed in the main clause or statement. (The employment of this device will enable the student to avoid the lack of unity that results from improper co-ordination.)

As examples of subordination:

Wrong: (Not preferred) *The drama was ceasing to appeal to the general public, and the Puritans constantly were growing in numbers.*

Better: (Through subordination) *While the drama was ceasing to appeal to the general public, the Puritans constantly were growing in numbers.*

Wrong: (Not preferred) The approval of the court circles did not promote either morality or art, but the drama continued to attract writers of great talent.

Better: (Through subordination) Although the approval of the court circles did not promote either morality or art, drama continued to attract writers of great talent.

Wrong: (Not preferred) In the century after Elizabeth the violence of controversy led men to extremes on either side, but the century was a time of great men, and the men worked through strife and controversy toward the moral and political ideas that now guide England.

Better: (Through subordination) Although the violence of controversy in the century after Elizabeth led men to extremes on either side, the century was a time of great men, who worked hard through strife and controversy toward the moral and political ideals that now guide England.

I. The rhetorical question or the exclamation, thrown into a passage, is emphatic because it challenges the attention of the reader or listener even though he knows that he is not supposed to answer, or necessarily to be challenged.

As examples of the rhetorical question:

If a minister in his sermon wished to challenge his congregation, he might use such a rhetorical question as:

And what did the Apostle Paul say?

A lecturer might challenge the interest and attention of his audience by some such rhetorical question as:

And now, my friends, what is your honest opinion in this matter?

As examples of the exclamation:

A political speaker in exhorting his hearers might arouse their attention with some such challenge as:

May the Lord have mercy on America if there is not a change in its leaders!

A person seeking to start a rush for a particular place might exclaim, for the sake of creating interest, the well-known quotation:

Every man for himself — the devil take the hindermost!

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

203. SYMBOLS USED IN THE CORRECTION OF THEMES

Amb. Ambiguous. Ambiguity may be due to various causes. See *rules 139-150, 151, 165-177*.

“and” A too frequent use of the conjunction *and*. Correct (a) by making separate independent statements or (b) by changing one or more of the statements into clauses or phrases or into adjectives or adverbs. See *rule 174*.

Cap. Use a capital instead of a small letter and study the rule involved. See *rules 87-114*.
or = under a letter

C.B. s|. Comma blunder. One sentence should end and a new one begin at point marked with s|. Study *rule 195*.

Choppy Too many short, disconnected sentences.

Cdse. Condense the expression.

C. Consult at the hour set for consultation or suffer the penalty of a lowering of the grade.

CoS. Sentence lacks coherence owing to the faulty arrangement of sentence-members, *i.e.*, the careless placing of modifiers. All sentences should be constructed with those members closely related in idea as nearly together as possible so that the writer's thoughts are always unmistakable. Language

should be so clear that the reader or hearer **MUST** understand. Study *rules 151-164, 201*.

Co¶. The paragraph lacks coherence. You have statements dealing with the same idea scattered at different points in the paragraph. Bring all statements concerning any one idea together and say all that you want to express concerning this idea before moving to something else. **BRING LIKE THINGS TOGETHER ALWAYS.**

CoT. The theme lacks coherence because you have discussed phases of the same idea in various paragraphs. All thoughts concerning any one central idea or subject should be brought together at **ONE** place in **ONE** paragraph.

CR. Consult first; then rewrite the theme.

D. Diction, misuse of a word. Consult the dictionary.

Dev. Development insufficient. Do not introduce any idea unless you develop it.

Em. Lack of emphasis. Cf. *rule 202*.

Gr. An error in grammatical construction. Correct it.

Ital. The word (or letter) should be underscored to indicate that it is set in italics. See *rules 178-182*.
or one line
under a
word or letter.

K. Clumsy, unidiomatic, or unnatural manner of expression. Examples of excessive awkwardness:
a. "I asked was there anyone else."
b. "Being he was from the country, he did not know —."

c. "Jack, her childhood sweetheart and whom she is still in love with, was present.

- L. Looseness, *i.e.*, careless use of words. You have written words merely to make a sentence without first thinking carefully whether the words express your idea. Before using a word consult your dictionary to see whether the word will express better than any other the exact idea that you have in mind.
- I. c. Use a lower-case (small) letter instead of a capital. Be sure that you know why the change is desirable.
- No¶. Do not make a new paragraph.
- NS. No sentence or no independent statement. A phrase or clause can not stand as an independent statement. Study *rule 196*.
- O. The omission of a word or words necessary to make the idea clear or the sentence complete. Supply the necessary word or words before returning the theme for filing. Frequent omissions can not be tolerated.
- ¶ Make a paragraph.
- Pl. "Parallel construction." The sentence lacks coherence as a result of change in grammatical construction. "Ideas parallel in thought should be parallel in expression." Study *rules 165-172*.
- PtV. Point of view shifted. (This is really a violation of "parallel construction.") Study *rules 165-166*.
- Pn.
(or pn) Punctuation is faulty. Correct the mistakes and write on the margin of the theme the rules involved.
- R. Rewrite the entire theme.

- R{ Rewrite the section within the brace.
- Ref. Faulty reference. The sentence lacks coherence in that certain words (pronouns and participles) do not refer clearly to other words, *i.e.*, to their antecedents or to the words that they modify. Study *rules 139-148*.
- Rep. Repetition of the same sound or of the same word. Substitute a fitting word or words.
- Rep. I. Undesirable repetition of ideas.
- Rev. Revise the section marked.
- "so" Misuse of the word *so*.
- sp. The word is incorrectly spelled. Correct it and make a note of it in your list of misspelled words.
- stet. It is correct as you had it; let it stand.
- Str'y. Stringy construction.
- T. Wrong tense.
- tr. Transpose a word or words.
- TrS. Faulty sentence-transition. In the introduction of a new thought you fail to show its relationship to the preceding sentence or sentences. The proper transitional devices are lacking.
- Tr¶. Faulty paragraph transition. The relationship between the new paragraph and the paragraph that precedes is not made clear; proper transitional devices are lacking.
- Ue¶. The paragraph lacks unity because it contains matter which does not relate to the subject of the

paragraph. YOU LOST SIGHT OF YOUR PARAGRAPH-SUBJECT. Revise the paragraph, omitting all extraneous matter.

- Uf¶. The paragraph lacks unity because it shows only a partial discussion and development of its subject. All phases of a paragraph-subject should be discussed, or it should not be introduced at all.
- UfT. Lack of unity in the whole composition because of the omission of facts which are necessary for a full discussion.
- U¶. The paragraph lacks unity because you have more than one paragraph-subject in the paragraph.
- US. The sentence lacks unity. Cf. rule 200.
- V. Vague. Your sentence lacks clearness. One can understand it with difficulty or not at all. Rewrite the sentence and say what you mean.
- W. Wordiness. You use entirely too many words for the thought. Seek direct, clear-cut statements.
- § Omit.
- # Separate into two words.
- ⊂ Close up, making one word of two.
- = You should use a hyphen.
- ⊙. You are in error. Consult a dictionary to see whether there should be one word, two separate words, or a hyphenated word. Make the correction.
- ? Query. Are you sure that this is correct?
- x. Obvious error. Correct it.

APPENDIX B

204. MARKS FOR PROOF READING

MARGINAL MARK	CORRESPONDING MARK IN PROOF	MEANING
Q	He made his mark.	take out
○	He made his mark.	close up
○	He made his mark.	invert
L	L He made his mark.	bring to mark
tr	He his made mark	transpose
stat	He made his mark.	let stand.
it?	He made his mark.	query to author
¶	Therefore, be it Resolved	make paragraph
□	He made his mark.	indent em-quad
wf	He made his mark.	wrong font letter
l.c.	He made his Mark.	lower case letter
smc	He made his mark.	small capital
caps	He made his mark.	capitals
italic	He made his mark.	put in italic
roman	He made his mark.	put in roman
bf	He made his mark.	put in boldface.
○	He made his mark.	period
✓	He made John's mark.	apostrophe
∧	This is John who made his mark.	comma
“”	He made his mark.	quotation marks
/	This is a trademark.	byphen
#	He made his mark.	space
✓	He made his mark.	even spacing
↓	He made his mark.	push down space
x	He made his mark.	broken letter

The marks given above are the ones most generally used in proofreading. There are many others that are required in different classes of work, but these are in the main self-explanatory. This display of proof marks and their meanings was prepared from standardized practice and endorsed by the Boston Proofreaders Association.

APPENDIX C

205. TYPE STYLES

Modern roman

Modern italic

MODERN SMALL CAPS

Old style roman

Old style italic

OLD STYLE SMALL CAPS

Boldface roman

Boldface italic

Antique roman

Antique italic

Gothic

Old English

Sans serif roman

Sans serif italic

Script

Typewriter

APPENDIX D

206. ROMAN NUMERALS

1. I.	30. XXX.	59. LIX.	88. LXXXVIII.
2. II.	31. XXXI.	60. LX.	89. LXXXIX.
3. III.	32. XXXII.	61. LXI.	90. XC.
4. IV.	33. XXXIII.	62. LXII.	91. XCI.
5. V.	34. XXXIV.	63. LXIII.	92. XCII.
6. VI.	35. XXXV.	64. LXIV.	93. XCIII.
7. VII.	36. XXXVI.	65. LXV.	94. XCIV.
8. VIII.	37. XXXVII.	66. LXVI.	95. XCV.
9. IX.	38. XXXVIII.	67. LXVII.	96. XCVI.
10. X.	39. XXXIX.	68. LXVIII.	97. XCVII.
11. XI.	40. XL.	69. LXIX.	98. XCVIII.
12. XII.	41. XLI.	70. LXX.	99. XCIX.
13. XIII.	42. XLII.	71. LXXI.	100. C.
14. XIV.	43. XLIII.	72. LXXII.	101. CI.
15. XV.	44. XLIV.	73. LXXIII.	200. CC.
16. XVI.	45. XLV.	74. LXXIV.	201. CCI.
17. XVII.	46. XLVI.	75. LXXV.	300. CCC.
18. XVIII.	47. XLVII.	76. LXXVI.	301. CCCI.
19. XIX.	48. XLVIII.	77. LXXVII.	400. CCCC.
20. XX.	49. XLIX.	78. LXXVIII.	401. CCCCI.
21. XXI.	50. L.	79. LXXIX.	500. ID, or D.
22. XXII.	51. LI.	80. LXXX.	600. DC.
23. XXIII.	52. LII.	81. LXXXI.	700. DCC.
24. XXIV.	53. LIII.	82. LXXXII.	800. DCCC.
25. XXV.	54. LIV.	83. LXXXIII.	900. DCCCC.
26. XXVI.	55. LV.	84. LXXXIV.	1000. CIO, or M.
27. XXVII.	56. LVI.	85. LXXXV.	5,000. IDO.
28. XXVIII.	57. LVII.	86. LXXXVI.	10,000. CCIOO.
29. XXIX.	58. LVIII.	87. LXXXVII.	100,000. CCCIOOO

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